The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 28, 1894.

The Week.

WE presume that few persons expected that the Senate Sugar investigation would find out many facts pointing to corruption or speculation. It cannot be affirmed that the committee did not want to find the facts—on the contrary, they have shown every disposition to go to the bottom of the subject; but the only witnesses who could have told anything very interesting, the stock-brokers, refused to testify, and there was no effective way of compelling them. On the other hand, much general information was gathered about the doings of the Sugar Trust and their mode of working politics through campaign contributions. The testimony on this point has not been wasted by any means. It has had an effect on public opinion which will be reflected when the sugar schedule comes up in the House. That portion of the Senate schedule which postpones the date when the act shall go into effect until the 1st of January next will almost certainly be rejected by the House. This clause offers the opportunity to a few persons to import all the raw sugar on the world's markets, and pocket the duty when the act goes into operation. It is not necessary that the Sugar Refining Company itself should buy it. Anybody can do so who is sure of being able to sell it to the Trust after the first of January. There is no particular reason why the ordinary shareholders of the company should have any part of this importing profit. An omnibus load of persons could easily pocket the whole. The amount of sugar that might be imported in this interval, so that the tax should be a strictly private speculation, would probably be as much as one-fourth of a year's consumption. It would be much larger if it fell in the first half of the year, when the bulk of the cane-sugar crop comes into market. The tax on one-fourth of a year's supply would be an enormous profit, however, and there is no reason why more than half-a-dozen persons should get any part of it.

There is an important consideration which the Trust constantly keeps in mind, and which its opponents would do well to watch, viz., the relation between what protection the Trust gets and the revenue duty secured by the Government (with incidental protection to American sugar-refiners). If the conference committee should, by a specific schedule, put a duty on raw sugars, with a special discrimination in favor of refined sugars, then, at any time when the public is prepared for it, it will be perfectly easy and practicable to wipe off or reduce the special protection to the Trust without disturbing or even discussing the revenue duty, in which lies the protection of our planters. That is just what the Trust is afraid of; and it is therefore intensely interested in having the bulk of its net protection so entwined with the revenue duty and the incidental protection secured to the planter as, on the one hand, not to be understood by the mass of our people, and, on the other hand, not to be disturbed without raising the whole question. It is of the greatest advantage to the public, and the greatest disadvantage to the Trust, that its own protection be kept distinct from the revenue duty. This is one of the reasons why it so strenuously insists upon getting its protection in the shape of its gains under the 40 per cent. duty, any disturbance of which in the future will raise the question of revenue and start into opposition our United States sugar-growing interests, which it expects to become more powerful every year. On the other hand, if the duty on raw sugars is made distinct from the duty on refined sugar, the statistics will show, even in a few years, that the refined-sugar discrimination yields no revenue to any one except the Trust; and the Government, and the mass of our people, even the planters themselves, will be glad to see wiped out the special protection which helps no one but the refiners.

What is the opinion of the *Tribune* upon the silver attitude which one Republican State convention after another is taking? There have been six such conventions held—Indiana, Ohio, California, Kansas, Maine, and Vermont—and the platform of every one of them has shown a disposition to juggle with the silver question in the hope of catching free-silver votes. That of California came out squarely for the free and unlimited coinage of silver; those of Indiana and Ohio favored bimetallism on the Reed-Lodge plan of forcing England by discriminating tariff duties to abandon the gold standard; and those of Kansas, Maine, and Vermont uttered varying degrees of bimetallic nonsense adapted to their respective localities. It is a fact that not a single Republican State convention has made a straightforward declaration in favor of sound money and against any further trifling with the disastrous and dangerous silver delusion. What has the *Tribune* to say about this? So far as we have been able to discover, nothing. It is almost carried beyond the limits of rational utterance in its abhorrence of Democratic incapacity and incompetence to govern, but the formally announced opinions of its own party upon the most important of existing governmental questions do not excite any comment whatever.

The strongest point of our mighty men of silver in the Senate has always been the Orient. When driven into a corner on matters of fact respecting the currency of civilized nations, their surest escape has been to the "teeming millions" of India and China and Japan, about whose consuming desire for silver and portentous capacity to "absorb" it they have told us many and strange things. Indeed, it was only a little while ago that President Andrews came out with a triumphant proof that silver had not really depreciated after all, inasmuch as a remote corner of China had been found where silver would purchase as much rice as twenty years ago. It has been hard and seemingly scarce worth while to chase down all this wisdom drawn from the East for our confusion, but it looks now as if the East itself would do the chasing down. The Senate debate on coining dollars especially for the Orient has percolated to the Orient itself, and is calling out such discouraging observations as this from the *Japan Mail* of June 2: "It is curious and interesting to note how little information the Senators seem to possess about the currency of Eastern countries." It expresses surprise that any Senator should think, as all seemed to think, that Mexican dollars are largely current in Japan, and gently raps Senator Sherman over the knuckles for speaking of the *yen* as a coin issued by the Chinese Government. All this is depressing enough, and we doubt if we shall ever be able again to hang in trustful confidence on the lips of Jones or Stewart as they discourse of the currency of Cathay through one of its own cycles. A silver prophet without honor out of his own country is truly as pitiable as he is rare.

The Socialist Labor party has had a convention at Cleveland, Ohio, and framed a platform which provides for "the enlargement of the mental and psychic requirements of enlightened mankind" by the very simple method of shortening the hours of labor. It also provides for "the repeal of all laws in restraint of paupers, tramps, and conspiracies," and for State and local employment of the unemployed, and the trial of all offences committed during industrial disturbances by jurors drawn from "the industrial classes." There is, of course, also the usual provision for the Government ownership of railroads, ferries, gasworks, etc. We can, however, hardly call this a well-considered platform,

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for it is quite evident that when the Government owned the railroads, ferries, waterworks, electric plants, etc., and was bound to give work to all the unemployed, there would be no industrial disturbances. Nobody in his senses would work for a private employer when he could always get work from the State with short hours. State work would always be easy because the laborer could always punish the State boss, if he pushed him too hard, by voting against him, and the boss could not discharge him, because as soon as he was discharged he would become one of "the unemployed," and the State would have immediately to hire him again. Under these circumstances it is absurd to provide for the trial of offences committed during strikes by "industrial" jurors; there would not be any strikes. The enjoyment the tax-payers, "a highly privileged class which thrives from the unpaid labor of the wage-earner," would find in "the enlarged mental and psychic requirements" of the great army of Coxeyites who would toil in the service of the State, may be more readily imagined than described.

Apropos of this there are some very sensible remarks in the London *Economist*, suggested by the late referendum in Switzerland on "the right to labor," on the extent to which people allowed themselves to be frightened by this Socialist twaddle. As a rule the more difficult, or far-off, or visionary, or absurd the object of an agitation is, the greater the noise its promoters make, and they often manage to frighten the silent and busy classes very seriously. An opportunity of finding out exactly how strong they are, hardly ever offers, because they rarely put up candidates at elections. In Switzerland the Socialists are apparently more numerous and able than in any other country in Europe, because the natives of that school have been reinforced by refugees from all parts of the Continent. They made, too, a prodigious racket, and nearly frightened the Federal Council out of their wits when they demanded State work for all the unemployed. Finally, they demanded a referendum by 52,000 votes, 2,000 more than the legal minimum. The question was submitted to the people after a prolonged discussion, in which all the leading men of the republic took part with their hearts in their mouths. Well, the vote came off the other day, and the Socialists had 80,000 against 300,000. What the Socialists really demand is the abolition of property and the support of all the lazy by the industrious, or, in other words, the conversion of the State into a vast workhouse. There is probably hardly an intelligent man in any community who does not feel that he would die twice over sooner than submit to such a régime, and yet many have vague fears about it. What we have to fear from socialism is mischievous legislative interference with the public credit and with the standard of value, and extravagant public expenditures, and discriminating taxation, and a feeble enforcement of the law against rioters and tramps; but the idea of a "social revolution" is preposterous.

The curious state of mind into which the world is getting on the subject of the unemployed is seen again in the new view of the horrible dangers of a general disarmament. Members of English and French chambers of commerce met in Paris last Friday to discuss that question, and discovered a "consensus of opinion" that such a disarmament would have a most serious effect upon labor, as it would add the 3,750,000 now in European armies to the ranks of the unemployed. The logical implications of such a consensus of opinion are truly bewildering. It would follow that workingmen have been hugely mistaken all these years in imagining that one of their chief grievances is a great standing army supported by taxes wrung in good part from their wages. What they really ought to do is to beg the governments to arm and support several millions more of soldiers so as to diminish competition in the factories and on the farms, and make it easy to strike and keep up wages. Then, too, it would appear that it is another blunder to consider a standing army as itself the most pestiferous collection of the unemployed known to mortals. Economists and statesmen have been all wrong in speaking of it as a deplorable waste of productive power and a terrible drain upon the resources of a nation. If this new view is correct, the bigger the army and the bigger the taxes, the better off labor will be, and the talk of tax-reformers in Italy about reducing the military budget so as to give the laboring man a chance to enjoy untaxed salt and flour, is the sheerest folly, and our disarmament of a million men at the close of the Rebellion was a colossal mistake.

Evidently this new view of an army as a safety-valve to remove the pressure of competition from the laboring classes is all of a piece with the modern idea of an omnipotent state having inexhaustible wealth at command. From maintaining three millions of men under arms in the interests of labor it is only a short step to maintaining all laboring men outright at Government expense. Indeed, if all the flummery and extravagance of an army were done away with, and the men were simply fed and clothed, the money could be made to go much further and support more men and do just so much more good to labor. It is the new idea and dread of the unemployed which drive men into such absurdities. The phenomenon of men out of work is no new one in the world's history. Ever since the division of labor had gone any length, workingmen have been exposed to temporary or permanent loss of their jobs. But formerly men looked at this fact in a common-sense sort of way, hoped for better times, and stirred about to create new industries; and before long everybody that wanted work found it in some form or other. Nowadays there seems to be a new sensation and a new procedure in the matter. Men are no longer out of work, which is not necessarily so bad a thing, but they belong to "the ranks of the unemployed," and that is something fearful, making it incumbent on the State to intervene and perform miracles for their relief. And the vague dread spreads among economists and business men, leading them into such absurdities as supposing that taxation is more easily endured than competition, and that a modern commercial nation is best off with one-tenth of its productive power running to waste.

Gov. Altgeld of Illinois, who tried to keep pace with such executives as Pennoyer of Oregon, Waite of Colorado, and Lewelling of Kansas, by pardoning the anarchists, is now threatened with vengeance by "organized labor" for breaking his pledges on the question of convict labor. During his canvass for the governorship he talked loudly and vehemently against prison labor, and declared that "an honest mechanic should be permitted to work outside the walls of the penitentiary without coming in competition with the product of convict labor." But as executive he has felt constrained as a matter of economy to set the convicts at work, and he has concluded to establish a cigar factory in the State prison at Joliet. He tries to minimize the importance of his action by explaining that he intends to introduce a large number of trades, in order that only a few men may be employed in any one and that the competition of prison labor with outside labor may be reduced as much as possible. But his excuses are of no avail, and the president of the cigarmakers' union has written a letter declaring that, if the Governor carries out his intention of establishing the cigar factory at Joliet, it will be considered a breach of good faith with the labor unions, and they will be revenged upon him. It is delightful to see a demagogue thus tripped up.

The South is making headway with its lynching mania. Gov. Tillman of South Carolina announced recently that he would be glad to head a lynching mob, and now comes the Right Rev. Hugh Miller Thompson, Bishop of Mississippi, formerly an editor of the *Churchman* in this city, and lays it down that the lynching parties are the people "who save delay by simply resuming the natural sove-

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reignty delegated by them to the courts, and hang the criminal." The reason why the "people" have "resumed their natural sovereignty" in these cases is that "the laws are slow, the jails are full, and the lawyers are banded together to defeat justice, as they always are." The laws are the laws of the white people of the State; the jails are their jails; the lawyers are under their control; the courts are their courts. Consequently what the bishop admits in their behalf is not that they have resumed their sovereignty, but that they have abdicated it—that popular government in Mississippi is a complete failure. But this is not all. When a bishop approves of the administration of justice by armed mobs, he completes one of the most shocking pictures of anarchy we have ever read of. It would be far more logical for him to throw bombs into court-houses and jails than to justify killing without trial.

Some months ago the League of American Wheelmen held its annual convention, and adopted, by more than a two-thirds vote, an amendment to its constitution restricting membership to whites, in order to prevent the embarrassment caused by occasional applications from men whose only disqualification was the color of their skin. The same question came before the national convention of the American Railway Union in Chicago last week, and a motion to strike out of the constitution the clause declaring that membership shall be restricted to those born of white parents was defeated by a vote of 113 to 102. Even the motive of political advantage and the hope of getting office do not avail to overcome color prejudice. The Republicans of Texas are split into two factions, and will hold rival State conventions, because one element, known as "the Lily Whites," will not consent to sit in meetings of Republican clubs with negroes. So far as this prejudice is concerned, there seems to be but little difference between North and South.

The contest over the Republican nomination for Congress in the Twenty-first Pennsylvania District has brought to light an extraordinary state of things. Two years ago D. B. Heiner was made the candidate; the failure to renominate the then sitting member, according to the Philadelphia *Press*, having been "due, as everybody at all informed perfectly well understood, to the fact that he was not willing to buy off certain other candidates." Heiner's chief rival two years ago was William C. Bond, who is now again seeking the nomination. Local Republican papers openly charge that Heiner's nomination in 1892 was secured through his payment of $3,900 in money and notes in trust for Bond to the latter's brother. Bond has made a lame and halting attempt at denial, but in the course of it confesses his complicity in another form of bribery two years ago. "I have," he says, "an article of agreement, signed, sealed, and witnessed, that in consideration for me nominating Mr. Heiner at this coming district conference Heiner is to nominate me if I am successful at the primaries held in this county on the 16th of June, 1894." This statement is a clear admission of guilt under a Pennsylvania law for the punishment of bribery and fraud at nominating elections and conventions, and yet so dull is the Congressman's moral sense that he sees nothing out of the way in such a performance.

Mr. Croker's malarial affection, which started him for Europe so suddenly a few weeks ago, has disappeared, and he is about to return to us again without warning. The great man seems to be an expert in the use of the dramatic element in politics, for he contrives by his sudden exits and returns to keep the newspapers filled with explanations of his movements. It is said by his champions now that his return is proof positive that he did not run away from the Lexow committee, and that he is clearly not afraid of anybody. As he will arrive here after the committee has adjourned for the summer, and there will be ample opportunity for his ailment to break out again before the committee resumes its work, this demonstration of "who's afraid?" must be taken for what it is worth. In one of his alleged interviews by cable, Croker is credited with complaining of the license of the American press in its attacks upon public men, saying that "some of the American newspapers carry things too far," but that "it's no use to sue them—they can't be brought under the rule of the law." By far the most serious attack ever made upon Croker was not made in a newspaper, but in a pamphlet published openly by Otto Kempner. Why does not Croker sue him for libel and get a vindication which will shut up all the newspapers?

In consequence of the decided and angry tone taken by Germany, Great Britain has made up her mind to relinquish an important part of her gains by her recent treaty with the Congo Free State. Reserving but a few insignificant privileges, she has surrendered her lease of a strip of land twenty-five kilometres broad between Lakes Tanganyika and Albert Edward which would have secured for her an uninterrupted chain of possessions from Cape Colony to Egypt. This rather mortifying step may be interpreted in two ways: it may mean that the British Government is full of the most peaceful and conciliatory intentions—so much so that, having unwittingly given offence to other powers, it is anxious to placate them, even at the price of considerable sacrifices; it may also mean—and this is the more probable explanation—that England has purchased German acquiescence in order to have her hands free for the graver dispute with France. If this be the case, it is very serious. Already, through the vehement speech of the minister of foreign affairs, supported by the unanimous vote of the Chamber, France has committed herself to such an extent that, to escape public humiliation, she must obtain extensive concessions, and nothing could make her more intractable in her demands than the fact that Great Britain has just yielded to Germany. On the other hand, English public opinion, smarting under discomfiture, will be very sensitive to anything resembling subservience, and to the French above all people. Much tact will be required on both sides to cope successfully with the difficulties of the situation.

The two great commissions which were to satisfy the demands of the German agrarians and bimetallists have come and gone, and in spite of the polite phrases of the Prussian Minister von Heyden and the Imperial Secretary Count Posadowsky both agrarians and bimetallists have returned to their homes empty-handed. Public attention is now free to centre once more upon that other great commission which for two years has been busy with the regulation of transactions on the German exchanges, and which has submitted a report to the federal Government such as might have been expected of a body composed of statesmen, scholars, and tradesmen entertaining the most diametrically opposite views as to the proper functions of exchanges. On the whole, the pessimistic view prevails in the report. Thus, there is a provision that dealings in certain stocks or merchandise on future contract may be legally prohibited if a commission, to be appointed by the German chancellor, decides that such transactions are detrimental to the public interests. This commission (composed of "men of science"), as the "representative of the interests of the purchasing public," is also to watch over the issue of shares and bonds of new enterprises. In order to prevent speculation on margin, every produce-exchange broker is to keep a book in which all transactions must be registered, the entries being made public. There is also a clause prohibiting private transactions with employees of commercial houses and persons of "slender resources," and there are various other propositions, all equally laudable as to motive and equally vague as to phraseology, and all smacking of that paternalism which sees in an imperial or royal commission the panacea for all the evils of society.

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THE MORAL OF CARNOT'S ASSASSINATION.

IT would be useless to try to conceal from ourselves the fact that M. Carnot's assassination is likely to frighten every man in power in the civilized world. It will unquestionably make his successor very nervous. It was said not long ago by a military writer that a man who did not mind being killed was always a terrible antagonist, and such an antagonist every anarchist who makes these attempts on life and property seems to be. Those anarchists who have been caught are unquestionably fanatics, and the distinguishing mark of a fanatic, as of a lunatic, is that he acts from high motives. When the lunatic murders his wife and family, it is always, or nearly always, under the pressure of some dreadful sense of duty. He does it with a view to save them from some more terrible fate, or in obedience to the command of some mysterious power. The murdering anarchist is, as far as we have seen him, only one degree removed from the poor wife-murderer. "Society" has taken, in his eyes, the place of his own family. He has a solemn mission to do something to bring about its reform, and, as in the case of the ordinary homicidal lunatic, the easiest method of reform which suggests itself to him is killing somebody. But he is removed from the ordinary lunatic to a degree which makes him responsible for his acts. He always tries to run away after throwing his bomb or firing his shot, and always pleads the dictates of his conscience as an excuse or reason why he should not be hanged or guillotined. In no case has a "militant anarchist" committed suicide. He likes to take his chance of escape as a conscientious reformer, and to enjoy the notoriety which follows on his crime; in which, of course, he derives great assistance from the newspapers.

Now, the moral of all this is, that the men whom society calls on to expose themselves in great offices, in the struggle with anarchy and disorder on which the world seems to have entered, ought to be supported by something more than the terrors of the law or the general execution of the assassins. It is not enough, when a man like Carnot or Crispi, or Heaven knows who next, falls under the assassin's dagger, to lament his fate and denounce the criminal. As the world now stands, we hold it to be the solemn duty of all writers, preachers, and professors, who are engaged in the work of reform, to refrain from denunciations of the existing society and social arrangements. Reform is possible without this, by simply acting on the lines of human nature. The common practice among Christian and other socialists and utopians of abusing nearly everybody who succeeds in life as an enemy of the human race, and the existing constitution of society as an engine of fraud and oppression, has undoubtedly done much to produce the "militant anarchist," and give a sort of moral justification to his attacks on life and property. For the novel and remarkable thing about these attempts is that they never appear to be dictated by individual hate or animosity. Any group of well-dressed persons attracts the bomb, and any officer of the Government attracts the dagger or the pistol. This shows that there is a theory behind the thing, and this theory has certainly not come out of the workshops or factories. It has come down from the colleges, libraries, and lecture-rooms, and latterly from the churches. The "thinker" who first gave out that all laboring and indeed all poor men were the victims of "injustice," was the first man to sow the seeds of the frightful insanity with which we are now called on to contend. The injustice of one man can be righted by law or opinion, but the injustice to which all well-to-do people owe their comforts, naturally seems to a half-crazy ignoramus to require sterner and more sweeping measures. Probably thousands of weak brains in both Europe and America are waiting to-day to have their murderous passions lighted up by a word or two in favor of "social evolution" by some light-headed professor or half-baked minister who has been overcome by the spectacle of human misery.

The church for ages did excellent work in preaching content to the poor and unfortunate, for there was then really no escape from their misery. These teachings have now been dropped, or fall on leaden ears. The new doctrine, that no man should be content, that all should try to rise, has been converted into a proposition that all *can* rise, and that if anybody does not rise, it is because somebody is keeping him down. Herein lies the source of all our woes. Anybody who goes about spreading this view is really an accessory before the fact to all anarchist crimes. The true rôle for the social reformer in our day is to comfort and help the weak-hearted, to raise up those who fall, to strengthen those who stand, and to open to all a fair field, and to try to keep down the world's supply of envy, hatred, and malice.

OUR SAMOAN TROUBLE.

MR. GRESHAM has sent in to the President a report on the Samoan matters which ought to be read by all persons who feel their loyalty to old-fashioned American principles growing weak. The opening paragraph ought to be hung up in every newspaper office in the country, and over the bed of every young Jingo who thinks foreign meddling a sign of "good Americanism." Here it is:

"It is in our relations to Samoa that we have made the first departure from our traditional and well-established policy of avoiding entangling alliances with foreign powers in relation to objects remote from this hemisphere. Like all other human transactions, the wisdom of that departure must be tested by its fruits. If the departure was justified, there must be some evidence of detriment suffered before its adoption, or of advantage since gained, to demonstrate the fact. If no such evidence can be found, we are confronted with the serious responsibility of having, without sufficient grounds, imperilled a policy which is not only coeval with our government, but to which may, in great measure, be ascribed the peace, the prosperity, and the moral influence of the United States. Every nation, and especially every strong nation, must sometimes be conscious of an impulse to rush into difficulties that do not concern it, except in a highly imaginary way. To restrain the indulgence of such a propensity is not only the part of wisdom, but a duty we owe to the world as an example of the strength, the moderation, and the beneficence of popular government."

We first went to Samoa in 1872, in the person of an unknown German adventurer named Steinberger, whom Gen. Grant had the good nature to make "special agent or commissioner." Steinberger, without any authority, promised the islanders the protection of the United States, but he was so troublesome and foolish that the American consul expelled him from the island, and he left on a British man-of-war. But he had, before he left, made a secret agreement with a German trading-house to throw the commerce of the island into their hands as far as he could, for a consideration.

In 1877 one set of Samoan chiefs sent an ambassador to Washington to make a treaty with us, while another set went to Fiji the same year to solicit the protection of Great Britain. But we refused to make any treaty. The following year, however, Samoa having got into the heads of our politicians, we did conclude a treaty giving us the port of Pago-Pago as a coaling-station, in return for which we were to use our offices as a mediator in case Samoa got into trouble with any European power. In 1879 the Germans, then in the height of their colonizing fever, also made a treaty by which they obtained a naval station in the harbor of Saluafata, The same year Great Britain made another treaty, stipulating that she also should have a naval station and coaling-depot. Then there were five years of quiet. Everybody had his coaling-station, and was happy. But in 1885 the German consul-general, Dr. Stuebel, got out of patience and seized all the land in the municipality of Apia as security for the good behavior of the islanders towards German interests. The American consul, not to be outdone, hoisted the American flag and proclaimed a protectorate. Our Government promptly disavowed him, and suggested a conference of the three powers to consider the situation.

A conference was accordingly held in Washington in June and July, 1887, but could not agree on anything and adjourned till the fall. In the interval the Germans demanded satisfaction from the Samoan King Malietoa, and declared war

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against him, and defeated him, and set up another King with a German adviser. We thought this was sharp practice, and sent a naval squadron to Samoa to look after American interests, whatever they were, and the squadron was destroyed in 1889 by a hurricane. In that year a treaty was concluded creating "an autonomous" government for Samoa and guaranteeing its neutrality. It was a beautiful system, but somehow it was not quite autonomous. There was a "supreme court," but the natives defied its writs, and refused to obey the new autonomous King. They became turbulent, and in 1893 broke out into open rebellion, and the autonomy came speedily to an end. The treaty powers put down the rebellion and deported twelve chiefs. The chief justice of the Supreme Court then resigned. So did the president of the Municipal Council of Apia. An American named Hyde was appointed chief justice in November last, but just as he reached his post he found that the laws were silent, as the city was full of warriors repelling attacks on the King. In the spring open war broke out, and several battles were fought around Apia on the autonomous plan. The Government had, on the whole, the best of it, but was nevertheless compelled to call on the foreign men-of-war again. These men-of-war now supply all the peace and security there is in the islands.

When we remember that these islands are 4,000 miles from our shores, and that our trade with them amounts to almost nothing, that we should never have thought of going near them for any purpose had not a foreign adventurer got himself appointed our commissioner under our free-and-easy diplomatic system for his own personal gain, there are few who will read Secretary Gresham's closing paragraph without a sigh of acquiescence:

"Soberly surveying the history of our relations with Samoa, we well may inquire what we have gained by our departure from our established policy beyond the expenses, the responsibilities, and the entanglements that have so far been its only fruits. One of the greatest difficulties in dealing with matters that lie at a distance is the fact that the imagination is no longer restrained by the contemplation of objects in their real proportions. Our experience in the case of Samoa serves to show that, for our usual exemption from the consequences of this infirmity, we are indebted to the wise policy that had previously preserved us from such engagements as those embodied in the general act of Berlin, which, besides involving us in an entangling alliance, has utterly failed to correct, if indeed it has not aggravated, the very evils which it was designed to prevent."

BLACKMAIL GOVERNMENT.

Is there any branch of business in this city, honest or criminal, which does not pay tribute money to Tammany Hall through the police? This question arises naturally in the mind of every reader of the testimony produced daily by the Lexow committee, and especially after testimony covering so wide a range as that of last week. It had been shown heretofore that vice and crime pay heavily for immunity; that applicants for the police-force and candidates for promotion to the higher ranks of the force must pay bribe money to somebody before their ambitions are gratified; that all liquor-saloons, licensed and unlicensed, pay tribute; and that professional swindlers share the profits of their business with the police and conduct it sometimes in partnership with a police justice. On Thursday it was shown that all steamships landing cargoes at this port have to pay blackmail at every stage of the business to every official—police, dock, custom-house, and other—that has anything to do with it; that all storekeepers who desire to use the sidewalks in front of their stores in displaying or handling their goods pay regular tribute to the police of about $25 a year, and that a more or less scientifically constructed tariff runs from the largest stores down to the push-cart vendor in the street, whose tribute is $3 a week.

A very significant bit of testimony was adduced also from a member of the police force, who admitted that he gave ten dollars to his sergeant—"just handed it to him"—on one occasion, merely remarking to him that it was a present. He had never given him any money before or since, and gave it to him on this occasion because he was friendly to him. The amount was just one-half of what the policeman had received from the steamship companies on his beat in the way of "extra compensation." It will be the natural inference of every intelligent person that this bit of testimony shows pretty clearly what the ratio of division is between the patrolmen and their superior officers for revenue derived from this source.

Another significant bit of testimony was that of a produce-dealer, who said he paid $25 a year for sidewalk privileges, and put the money in an envelope and left it at his neighbor's store to be called for. Similar caution was observed by the policeman who, according to another witness, wished to levy an extra tribute upon a push-cart cutlery dealer. Taking up a pair of scissors he asked, "Are they any good?" And being told that they were good enough to sell, he added: "Leave a pair for me with the Italian across the street." Everything in the way of "business" by the police is done in this cautious manner—either through envelopes, or a neighbor, or an Italian across the way. The force is known, according to the testimony of one of its members, as the "envelope gang," and we doubt if anything quite like it has ever existed in any other civilized community.

It would be inaccurate to say that these revelations are causing general surprise. You cannot surprise a community by disclosing facts which have been matters of common knowledge or experience with the larger part of its members for a quarter of a century. No citizen who has paid blackmail in one form is surprised to learn that another citizen has paid it in another form. A merely casual glance at the Dock Department on Thursday revealed the fact that steamship companies are blackmailed by every official in that department who has any power over them. If this was brought out at the first touch of the exploring probe, what would be the result if the department were to be thoroughly investigated? What would be the result in any other department under like treatment? The committee has no power to go into other departments than those connected with the police, and if it were to sit continuously for six months, it would have more than it could do to exhaust that restricted field; but we can see now what would have happened had Boss Platt permitted, in January last, the appointment of a joint committee with full powers to investigate the whole Tammany government. Mr. Croker's trip to Europe would have been hastened perceptibly by such a concession, and it is not improbable that a large collection of other Tammany magnates would have accompanied him.

Shall we be able to get at the sharers in the profits of this government by blackmail who stand behind and above the police and the other departments? Does anybody suppose that the enormous revenues from this government, running from the push-cart at $3 a week to the brothel at $500 "initiation fee" and $50 a month, with a sliding scale of rates upon every variety of reputable business, all stopped in the hands of their collectors? Did no shares pass beyond the police captains and commissioners to the political powers above them? We shall doubtless have light upon these questions in due time. Mr. Goff is clearly master of his case, and has it laid out on scientific lines. There are complaints in Tammany quarters that he is not giving the accused officials sufficient opportunity to be heard; but we discover no demands in these quarters for Judge Divver to take the stand and vindicate his character. Mr. Goff is ready to examine him at any time, and will be ready, we doubt not, to give all other Tammany statesmen and powers equal opportunity to be heard. The end is not yet, but the shame of the city is already established.

THE COURT OF CATHERINE II.

PARIS, June 7, 1894.

M. WALISZEWSKI has given us a most interesting volume on Catherine II. of Russia; it seemed as if he had exhausted his subject. His volume, which bore the title of 'Roman d'une Impératrice,' had truly all the interest of a novel. On the whole, with all her defects, one may even say with all her vices, Catherine appeared in it as a really great sovereign, and we felt that she had been not unjustly called "la

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grande Catherine." She was a very exceptional character, and, as M. Waliszewski justly remarks, of all the things which constituted her personal greatness, her prestige, her charm, nothing came to her by inheritance; she conquered or created everything; she formed all the men who became her ministers, her favorites. M. Waliszewski has thought it necessary to add a new volume to his work. Under the title 'Autour d'un Trône,' he gives us the most abundant details on the fellow-workers of Catherine, her friends and her favorites. The subject was a vast one, though, in many respects, the new volume is somewhat of a repetition or an echo of the first. Catherine fills again the whole volume, but it seems to us that a sort of transformation has taken place in the mind of M. Waliszewski. In his 'Roman d'une Impératrice,' though there are many criticisms, admiration is, so to speak, the keynote, the sequel, 'Autour d'un Trône,' reads more like a pamphlet, as a perpetual satire, than as a history. We find in almost every line a certain sort of bitterness and hostility.

Before writing his new work, M. Waliszewski thought it necessary to visit all the places where Catherine spent her eventful life. He was in hopes of finding some of those expressive traits which have more of life in them than the written documents.

"Alas! what I found," he says, "was the great void of things which have gone. In the palaces of Saint Petersburg, even at the Hermitage, nothing, or almost nothing; burnt under the reign of Nicholas, Rastrelli's magnificent edifices have been completely rebuilt. Nothing at Tsarskoe; the pompous or graceful decoration which charmed Ségur is gone, gone also the familiar frame where, under the kindly eye of the goddess vaunted by Voltaire, the widow of the Prince de Ligne, the wit of Potemkin answered the somewhat coarse buffoonery of Narishkin. Peter the Great has been more fortunate: we still find, on the icy shore which was fecundated by his genius, his little wooden house, with its heroic poverty and its suggestive furniture."

It is well known that Catherine, the "Semiramis of the North," was a great patron of the French philosophers. It was worth while to study with some detail what M. Waliszewski calls the intellectual court of Catherine. Voltaire wrote in one of his poems:

"C'est du Nord aujourd'hui que nous vient la lumière."

In a letter to Diderot he says: "It is France which persecutes the philosophers, and the Scythians who favor them." Grimm writes to Catherine: "Madam, after the kindness which your Majesty has lavished on one of the most celebrated philosophers of France, all those who cultivate letters are regarded as your subjects."

It is interesting to know exactly the nature of Catherine's relations with the philosophical school. What was her aim? what was the point of contact between the philosophers and the absolute sovereign of a distant and almost barbarous country? Extremes meet, says the proverb. Can we find an application of it in the sentiment which drew the philosophers towards Catherine? They knew well that this woman ruled over thirty millions of subjects, twenty millions of whom did not possess even their souls, which were transmissible by sale, worth ten rubles apiece on the average—mere muzhiks, covered with beasts' furs, hardly men. Catherine knew that the works of the philosophers, which she delighted in reading, could produce no effect in her vast empire. Since her time, some elements of Occidental culture have penetrated Russia, and Russia, on her side, has produced an original literature; she has shown that she can think for herself. Nevertheless, she remains to a great extent closed to European influences: the two surfaces have been brought in contact; the bodies are still impenetrable to each other. The present sometimes helps us to understand the past, if the past helps us to understand the present. Have we not, in our day, heard the Marseillaise, the great song of the Revolution, sung in St. Petersburg before the Czar? "Thermidor," a play of Sardou's, which had been interdicted in Paris under the Third Republic, could, without any danger, be played in St. Petersburg. We hear a great deal nowadays in Paris of the Russian alliance, of the "âme Russe"; we are supposed to be in communion with this Russian soul, but do we really know what it is? Is it enough to have read Turgeneff and Tolstoi? And did the French philosophers know what the Russian soul was under the reign of their beloved Semiramis of the North?

The relation between Voltaire and Catherine began in 1764. Did Voltaire know that, since 1716, a series of ukases had rendered auricular confession obligatory on all orthodox Russians, and that Catherine herself reprimanded severely Gen. Tchitcherin, Governor of Tobolsk, who was not prompt enough in taking note of those who did not obey the ukases? It suited Voltaire to use the name of Catherine, and it suited her to use his pen. When she was inoculated, Voltaire announced it to the world as a proof of her courage and of her superiority to all prejudices; when Voltaire opened a subscription for the family of Sirven, Catherine allowed him to put her on his list. On one point they saw exactly alike: Voltaire wished to subject the Church to the State, and so did Catherine. In 1771 she called the attention of Europe to the manner in which the Ottoman Porte treated millions of Christians; she sent 1,000 ducats to Voltaire, and asked him to find a young writer who could put together a pamphlet against the Turks. Voltaire wrote it himself ('Le Tocsin des Rois').

There was no end to the compliments they sent to each other; but Voltaire bore away the palm. Europe, he says, admires Catherine, Asia is astounded; if Asia and Europe had any common sense, she would rule over the whole world. She is "Notre Dame de Saint-Pétersbourg," very superior to the Polish virgin of Czenstockowa; she is the deity of the north—"Te Catharinam laudamus, te Dominam confitemur." She knows more than all the philosophers; her big diamond is bigger than the Regent's; her feet are whiter than the snows of Russia, etc., etc. I must confess that I am surprised that M. Waliszewski has not seen that Voltaire was a singular sort of a courtier; that he mixes too much irony and humor in his compliments to be considered an ordinary courtier. Catherine was not his dupe, and he was not the dupe of Catherine. In his correspondence with his friends Voltaire calls Catherine merely *la belle Catean*, or simply *Catean*. To Mme. du Deffand he says: "I know that people reproach her with some little trifles with regard to her husband, but such affairs are family matters that don't concern me; sometimes it is well that people should have grave defects to repair: they have to make greater efforts to force the admiration of men." And Mme. du Deffand, writing to Voltaire about Catherine, who "preached even among her neighbors with an army of 50,000 missionaries, well armed from head to foot," said to him, "Never see your Catherine except through the telescope of your imagination. Leave between her and yourself the distance of space in lieu of the distance of time."

The relations between Catherine and Voltaire were happier than her relations with Diderot. Voltaire often spoke of going to Russia, but he always left the "distance of space" between himself and the Empress. Diderot was not so fortunate. She had invited the famous philosopher to go to St. Petersburg and to continue there the Encyclopædia, which a royal decree had stopped after the first seven volumes. She had bought in 1765 the library of Diderot. He left for St. Petersburg with M. Narishkin, and was at first very well received. Catherine found him a little familiar, and she writes to Mme. Geoffrin that she is obliged to put a table between him and herself, as his mimicry is too expressive. "He takes her hands," writes Grimm, who was at the same moment at St. Petersburg, "he shakes her arm, he strikes on the table." He soon finds a wall rising between himself and Catherine. He asks questions which she refuses to answer; he is very anxious to show that he is no common courtier, but she reminds him at times that she is a sovereign.

One day he was declaiming against the courtiers and their flattery, and said that a special corner ought to be reserved for them in hell. She interrupts him: "Will you tell me what people say in Paris about the death of my husband?" He is embarrassed and speaks of the hard duties sometimes imposed on persons who, by their position, have a great mission. She stops him again: "It seems to me that you are taking the road, if not to hell, at least to purgatory." Diderot found, after a while, that he merely amused Catherine, but that she would not give him any real work to do. He had not made himself popular in society. After five months spent in idle conversations, he went away. He wrote to his wife that, the day before his departure, her Imperial Majesty "sent to me three bags containing a thousand rubles each. . . . If I deduct from it the value of an enamel and of two pictures which I gave the Empress, the expenses of my journey back, and the presents which I must make to Narishkin, . . . there will be left for us five or six thousand francs—perhaps a little less." Diderot forgets to tell his wife that, during his stay in St. Petersburg, he often received presents from the Empress, and that she paid all his expenses. In 1779 she sent some money to him through Grimm. As he was asthmatic, she paid the rent of a larger apartment for him in the Rue Richelieu on the first floor.

D'Alembert was among those who were honored with the advances of Catherine; he was more prudent and reserved than Diderot; his mind was less volatile. The Empress invited him to come to Russia, with a pension of 10,000 rubles, to finish there the Encyclopædia. In return she asked him to teach the Grand Duke mathematics. D'Alembert answered politely: "If it had been only a question of making the Prince a tolerable geometer, an ordinary writer, perhaps even a mediocre philosopher, I should not have despaired of succeeding; but there is a great interval between a geometer, a writer, even a philosopher, and a great king; and nobody, madam, knows it and proves it better than you." Catherine was somewhat offended; their relations became strained and finally ended completely. Catherine was never in correspondence with Rousseau. She forbade, in 1760, the sale of 'Émile,' but there were at the time only three copies of the book in Russia. She afterwards offered one of her many establishments to Rousseau as an asylum

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against persecution; Rousseau hardly took notice of the offer, and Catherine was offended. She was becoming more and more hostile to the philosophical school. On the 11th of February, 1794, she writes to Grimm: "You were quite right never to have been willing to be counted among the *illuminés*, the philosophers, for all this, as experience shows, ends only in destruction." The French Revolution had been a lesson to her, and Rousseau, the idol of the Jacobins, became her *bête noire*.

I have been able to give only a very cursory view of one of the parts of Waliszewski's new work. The other parts are no less interesting. The author is a good hater, which may perhaps be permitted to a Pole. He is often one-sided and intolerant; he has built his statue of Catherine, and, after having built, he stones it; but it must be confessed that his stones are heavy and well directed.

THE FALISCAN MUSEUM AT ROME.—II.

ROME, April, 1894.

THE first chamber of the museum is devoted to the graves which are attributed to the centuries prior to the sixth B. C., and conjectured to go back to the twelfth, and in this there occur very early the evidences of commerce with the East, in the shape of bronze implements of Phœnician types, and, what is far more characteristic and interesting in many ways, the constant habit of copying, in clay, utensils in bronze of foreign provenance, of which a few are found in the collection. The local ceramics were thus at once distinguished from all others found in Italy or elsewhere (as may be seen by the contents of one of the tombs, lately added to the vases in the British Museum), and are remarkable for a curious dexterity in copying bronze forms, and for a quite unique type of general decoration, in which there was finally a genuine evolution of the most florid type of ornamentation. To the well-tomb had succeeded at an early date the trench and chamber forms in a gradual development, but always, even in the simplest type, indicative of the introduction of traditions and ceremonials of an entirely different character from the Italic, and equally different from the distinctive Etruscan. There are the signs of increasing wealth in richly decorated arms, jewelry, and remains of chariot and harness of the horses, all of finest Oriental or Greek workmanship, bronze vases, Cypriote and Corinthian ceramics, and imitations of them, etc., etc.; and there occurs in one of the later tombs of this chamber, in the midst of the most elaborate Faliscan ceramics, a single kylix of pure Attic work, associated with local productions which we must put down for the seventh century, and which we can explain only as due to a second and later interment in the same tomb.

The second chamber introduces us at once into a world of Attic derivation. It is supposed to go back to the beginning of the sixth century, and some of the archaic vases with black designs on the red ground are among the finest in existence. To them succeed later styles of decorative design, and in the latest tombs of the series begin to appear vases of a new manner, borrowed from the Greek, and mingled with the imported ceramics, just as in the latest tombs of the preceding centuries the vases of Cypriote and other insular and the so-called Corinthian pottery had found their way among the Italic. Archaic Greek vases are found carefully mended, as if regarded as of high value and apparently for funereal uses. The Greek ware is accompanied by a concurrent supply of local manufacture, in black earth, considered by the explorers as intended for accompaniments in the grave, the service of the dead. The quality of the art seems to deteriorate with time, and while in the earlier period, and during the evident constant intercourse with continental Greece, the reverence for the dead was shown by the exquisite quality of the offerings to their shades, as time goes on and the Faliscan material assumes greater and still greater predominance, the greater part of the pottery which the rites assured to the manes becomes of a gross and wretchedly commonplace character, so that one is tempted to conclude that art was disappearing from Faleria before it fell. One of those singular cases of antique dentistry, of which several are known, occurs in one of the graves, viz., a skull with gold-work evidently having once supported some kind of substitute for the original teeth. Vases of the most exquisite Greek bronze, perfect in form and marvellous in a patina-like turquoise, occur in this part of the series; and the central showcase, which in each of the rooms contains the *chefs-d'œuvre* of the period, has a few vases of the very best style of Greek vase painting. One of these, a rhyton in the form of astragal, is excelled by nothing that I have ever seen of its kind. But the grosser Faliscan ware gains on the imported, and when we enter the next room, which is supposed to show the arts in Faleria in the fourth century and down to the capture and destruction of the city and the removal of the inhabitants, Greek art disappears entirely as if a wall had risen between the mother-land and the colony. Only a few bronze vases of evident Greek workmanship suggest Athens, and these may have been of local production. The ceramics are utterly barbarous for the far greater part, but a few have been found which lead to the inevitable conclusion that the vases given to the grave were manufactured for the grave, in merely formal obedience to the rites of burial which prescribed such an accompaniment.

The few really fine Faliscan vases are of a type not anywhere else discovered, and present an art of an unsuspected style, introducing a new element of design, in which I almost am disposed to find a prophecy of the Italian Renaissance. The Greek traditions are preserved, and an Olympian assembly gives us the usual divinities with their usual attributes; but the design has a daintier note, a delicacy of touch equal to that of the pre-Periclean painting, with a sensuous warmth of style which in a certain measure suggests the great medals of Syracuse in their Arethusa heads. The severity of the Greek work of the best time gives way to a flowing line, an enfolding of the draperies, and a sense of physical beauty, which I do not remember in any pure Attic work of any epoch—less heroic but more caressing. The suggestion of detail in drapery, in form, in decoration, is carried to the extreme, and the grace of line is studied with a care as great as is consistent with the freedom of it. A large and extremely important vase, quite unique in its way, has fortunately been preserved entire and with but little injury to its painting, and was evidently the gift to death of the bereaved partner of some tender Faliscan romance. It bears traces of polychromy, and, the main design having been drawn in black line on the red ground, the flesh and parts of the accessories have been overlaid in white enamel, on which the most delicate portions of the design have been finely drawn in black. On one side is an allegory of the dawn, Aurora driving forth with Eos in a chariot drawn by four horses, like those in the best Sicilian medals. In the air above are seen two swans, emblems of light, and the steeds are preceded by the winged genius of light, and on the neck of the vase above is a splendidly drawn bull giving battle to one of a pair of griffins, another being behind him for the symmetry of design. Over this is a border of lotus ornament. On the reverse there is the rape of Proserpina in chief, or death carrying away a young bride; her paraphernalia had been held by an attendant, from whose horror-paralyzed hands it is falling as the scene trembles to dissolution. Birds of night fly away, and the attitude of the attendant maiden is full of dismay. In the space above, in place of the bull giving battle to the symbols of mystery and ravage, is a stag, dragged down in a death agony by the victorious griffins. Overhead, in the place of the lotus border under the lip of the other side, is a line of fillet ornament, emblem of sacrifice. There is an ensemble of design with every part in a harmony of significance, a combination of such qualities of art as are most fitting to that branch of it to which it is applied, such as I do not know in Greek ceramics elsewhere.

A large and very rich tomb in the end of the series, while it shows evidence of the wealth and luxury of the epoch, also introduces still other hitherto unknown elements of decoration into the Faliscan ceramics—an unprecedented quantity of vases of large dimensions, originally silvered and ornamented with delicate designs in relief and polychrome applied to the completed vase, with modelled anses and terminals of fantastic figures of animals; a motive clearly suggested by similar vessels in metal. In the last room of the suite is a little collection of terracotta statuary, found in the ruins of one of the temples, of unusually large dimensions and of pure Greek art of the fourth century B. C., so fine, so masterly that one imagines that the Faliscans must have sent to Athens in its best days for a sculptor, and that Athens had sent the best she could spare. Marble in Italy not being then known, the statues of the temples were necessarily in clay, which has kept for us the manner of the artist much better than the marble was likely to do. But the art can be identified with no continental Greek school, so far as we know, and if Greek, otherwise than as Faliscan, it must have been of Sicily, the liaison being rather with Syracuse than the Acropolis; but probably it was purely Faliscan. The paucity of illustrative material is such that we can only conjecture, and with conjectures that confuse each other continually.

There are innumerable problems which present themselves for solution by the archæologist in this museum, and which must wait for more material from the surrounding cities. Meanwhile, incidental excavations at Alatri, at Civita Lavinia (carried on by Lord Saville, the predecessor of Lord Dufferin at the British Embassy to Italy), at Antemnæ, and other localities, show that the traditions of Faleria had extended through all the valley of the Tiber south of the Ciminians, and at Alatri were found the remains of a temple whose decorative parts of terracotta so closely correspond with those found at Faleria that there can be no doubt that the art was identical. A restoration of the temple, carried out in the grounds adjoining the Villa Julia, and based for the most part on documents of irrefragable authority, gives a new and lucid conception of the temple architecture, showing at the same time that what we have hitherto given on this head to the Etruscans, must be re-

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claimed for Greek art, as it has been in the case of the ceramics and the civic condition of Faleria. The dominion, not only as to its efficacy, but as to its extent, of the Raseni is singularly curtailed in the record we must compile from these discoveries.

One of the minor problems offered by the early burials is the occurrence of sarcophagi made from tree-trunks, split open and hollowed out, at Faleria frequently, and also at Gabii. The fact that in every case the inhumation was of a woman has induced Count Cozza to conclude that a custom existed of incineration for the males and inhumation for the females. These sarcophagi are found in tombs which cannot be placed later than the seventh century, and their occurrence in two cemeteries so far removed locally, and, as generally believed, even ethnically, from each other, suggests a confirmation of the tradition given by various ancient authors, that the Faliscans and the Curetes were a kindred people; the patroness of Faleria, Hera of the argive colonist, becoming Juno Curetes. But whether there was an identity or a cousinship, there is not yet evidence enough to determine. Excavations at Gabii, where nothing has been done except incidentally, might show us new relations; but, accepting the hypothesis of Cozza as to the sex distinction, I am inclined to suggest that the inhumations to be considered were probably those of priestesses rather than those accorded to all of the sex. Was there at Faleria a colony of pure Latin stock, or had a burial custom gone from Faleria to Gabii or vice versa? Was this a question of rite or of race? And if of race, what was the relation of the Gabinii (Gabii being also the seat of a famous temple of Juno) to the Aequi, of which nation the Curetes were a clan? The probability seems to me to be that the civilization which we know to have been established at Faleria (and of which the ancient tradition assigns the beginnings to the epoch of the Trojan disturbances, or earlier than that break-up, whatever it might have been), spread through all the country eastward and southward as far as the geological barriers, thus including the greater part of Latium and entering as an important element into the subsequent development of Roman civilization. But without claiming that this is indisputable, I consider that one thing is definitely established by the Faliscan and allied discoveries, viz., that the Etruscans, or Raseni, stood for little or nothing in the development of this phase of Italian (Italic) development, and that the so-called Etruscan art was only a barbaric adaptation of Greek traditions, so far as it could properly be called art. What lies beyond in archæological investigation through this opened door is of such splendid suggestion that we can only bitterly regret that the financial prostration of Italy should have compelled the suspension of all researches, including these, which have thrown such a wonderful light on the history of civilization in the few years past.

W. J. Stillman.

Correspondence.

THE WASHINGTON PEDIGREE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: For the past three years I have been much interested in the Washington pedigree as it has been developed in the columns of the *Nation*, and I have lately found among "Marriage Licenses granted by the Bishop of London; Chester" (Harleian Society Publications, vols. 25, 26) something which I think throws light on the second sister of John and Laurence Washington, the emigrants:

"Feb. 27, 1662. George Talbot of St. Giles in the Fields, gent. bachelor, aged 26; father dead, and Margaret Washington, of same, aged 24—parents both dead. At St. Giles in the Fields."

This date fixes her birth as in 1638, which seems probable from the Waters pedigree—her preceding sister, Elizabeth, having been born in 1636, and William, the brother who comes after her, in 1641.

Katharine C. Dorsey.
No. 2025 N Street, Washington, D. C.

"NOTCH."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the 'Century Dictionary,' under Notch, it is stated that "the word is apparently limited in use to the region of the White Mountains in New Hampshire and the Adirondacks, and has nearly the same meaning as *gap* in the central parts of the Appalachian range." To a similar effect writes Prof. J. D. Whitney, in his 'Names and Places' (1888): "In the White Mountains of New England the passes are occasionally called notches, a local use of the word peculiar to this region and that adjacent to it" (p. 135); though, in a work published in the following year, Prof. Whitney extends the use of the word to the Adirondacks.

As the word is used far more extensively than would appear probable from the above statements, it may be worth while to indicate what evidence the writer has collected bearing on the distribution and on the history of *Notch*. In the paragraphs which immediately succeed, the dates within brackets give the earliest known reference, either in print or on maps, to the Notch in question.

In New Hampshire, the State where the word has the greatest currency, there are the following Notches: Carrigain, Carter, Crawford or White Mountain (1784), Dixville (1841), Franconia (1839), Kinsman, Mad River, New Zealand, Perkins (1882), Pinkham (1784), Sandwich (1859), and Willey. All of these, except Dixville Notch, are within the limits of the White Mountain region.

In western Maine, in the near neighborhood of the White Mountains, are Evans, Grafton or Bear River (1858), and Miles (1858) Notches, while there is a Notch in Garland, Penobscot County (1859), and I am also informed that the word "has been used for years" as applied to a deep valley on the Island of Mt. Desert.

In Vermont are Smuggler's Notch (1886), at the base of Mt. Mansfield, and Willoughby Notch (1884), in Westmore.

In Massachusetts there are two Notches—one on a slope of Greylock, in Adams (1829), and the other between Mt. Holyoke and Mt. Norwottock (1863), traversed by the road from Amherst to South Hadley and Granby. There is also an early reference, in Douglass's 'Summary' (1749), to "a Notch in Bridgewater." The place alluded to was later in North Bridgewater and is now in Brockton; but as the hills in this part of Massachusetts nowhere exceed 200 feet in height, and as no reference to a Notch can be found in the histories of those towns, it is difficult to understand why Douglass should have used the word in speaking of such a comparatively level country.

In the Adirondacks are Wilmington Notch (1869) and Ausable Notch (1888).

In the Catskills there seem to be many Notches, but I have been unable to ascertain for how long a time the word has there been in use.

Finally, in Bolton Notch (Bolton, Tolland County), Connecticut, we have a gap or pass which has been called a Notch for over a century and three-quarters.

So far, then, from the word being peculiar to any one region, it occurs in no less than five of the New England States, and in two different sections of New York State.

While the examples which follow do not illustrate the word completely, they perhaps do so sufficiently. As applied to the famous pass in the White Hills, we can trace the word almost to the beginning. Whether, as has been frequently stated, that pass was known to the Indians, or whether it was discovered for the first time by Nash in 1771, at all events it then first became of any practical value to the white men. The word Notch, as applied to this pass, is found in writings as early as 1784, and also on a map published in London the same year.

"Dined at Coventry. Lodg'd with Col. Quincey at Olcot's, about ½ way between the Notch of the Mountain and Hartford." 1718, S. Sewall, *Diary*, 15 Sept. (1882), iii., 195.

"From this Station to a Notch in *Bridgewater* E. 18 d. N. are 23 Miles. . . . Its Southerly Line is from *Conohasset* Rocks to the Notch in Bridgewater 15 Miles." 1749, W. Douglass, *Summary*, i., 401,424.

"We took our leave of this place, . . . and about 11¼ arrived at the *Western Notch*, as it is called—a narrow defile between the Mountains." 1784, J. Belknap, *Belknap Papers* (1877), ii., 182.

"In my way to East Hartford I passed through Bolton. . . . In this town is what is usually called the notch of Hartford Mountains." 1787, M. Cutler, *Life, Journals and Corr.* (1888), i., 209.

"The head of Saco River, is in the White mountains, at the western pass, commonly called the notch." 1792, J. Belknap, *History of New-Hampshire*, iii., 57.

"Thence the line ran, a little north of west, through Pomfret, Ashford, Willington, and Tolland, to Mo-she-nup-suck, the notch of the mountain, now known to be the Notch in Bolton Mountain." 1797, B. Trumbull, *History of Conn.*, i., 444.

"Proceeded on foot to New River and the Meadow, in the east [Pinkham] Notch, about three miles." 1804, M. Cutler, *Life, Journals and Corr.* (1888), i., 111.

"The Notch of the White Mountains is a phrase, appropriated to a very narrow defile, extending two miles in length between two huge cliffs, apparently rent asunder by some vast convulsion of nature. This convulsion was, in my own view, unquestionably that of the deluge." 1821, T. Dwight, *Travels*, ii., 147.

"The two ridges embraced within the line of Adams converge towards the south. . . . The tapering valley between them, called 'the Notch,' comprises several dairy farms." 1829, J. W. Yeomans, in *History of Berkshire County*, Mass., 428.

"This mountain-pass—most inappropriately, as it seems to me, called the 'Notch,' as conveying the idea of something cut or indented by art, whereas here, the grandeur of nature alone is seen." 1841, J. S. Buckingham, *America*, iii., 216.

"The scene became more grand as we entered the defile called the Notch." 1845, Sir C. Lyell, *Second Visit to the U. S.* (1849) i., 63.

"The Pass, so called, is only an old-fashioned notch between the mountains." 1847, C. Lanman, *Adventures in the Wilds of America* (1856) i., 226.

"Passing down the Chemung and Susquehanna in canoes, they landed at a place called Three Islands, struck through the wilderness to a gap or 'notch' of the mountains, by which they entered the Valley of Wyoming." 1856, W. Irving, *Life of Washington* (1865), iii., 433.

"We reached the gap, which was like a deep notch cut into the mountain-ridge." 1847, F. Parkman, *Oregon Trail* (1872), 180.

"There are two deep valleys across the mountain, formerly called cracks and notches, one . . . where is the road between Amherst and South Hadley and Granby." 1863, S. Judd, *History of Hadley*, Mass., 436.

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"I found myself entering the 'Whiteface Clove' or 'Wilmington Notch.'" 1869, A. B. Street, *Indian Pass*, 136.

"Wilmington Pass is a natural gateway to North Elba from the north, a notch cut out of the mountains." 1886, S. R. Stoddard, *Adirondacks*, 72.

"The Notch may be taken as a good specimen of a snowless mountain pass: a deep and narrow gorge or chasm between two opposite precipitous cliffs." 1887, Grant Allen, in *Longmans' Magazine*, ix., 292.

If these examples furnish an adequate account of the word, we apparently have in Notch not only a genuine Americanism, but also, in its origin at least, a genuine Yankeeism. Though known in the New England States as early as 1718, it does not appear to have been applied locally elsewhere until within the last thirty years or so; and even now its use by other than New England writers seems to be sparing. Finally, it may be worth noting that, though there is perhaps not in New England a pass which is locally called a gap, yet in New English literature the words gap and notch are used interchangeably.

ALBERT MATTHEWS.

BOSTON, June, 1894.

["Great Notch" is the name applied to the wagon-road pass through Orange Mountain, New Jersey, not far from the northerly end at Paterson, though it is really but a small cleft or clove.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

'POOR FOLK,' translated from the Russian of F. Dostoyevsky by Lena Milman, will be published directly by Roberts Bros., who also have in press 'A Child of the Age,' by Francis Adams.

D. Appleton & Co. announce 'The Purple Light of Love,' by Henry Goelet McVickar, and 'Mrs. Limber's Raffle,' by William Allen Butler.

G. P. Putnam's Sons have nearly ready 'Miss Hurd: An Enigma,' by Anna Katharine Green, and students' editions of Irving's 'Tales of a Traveller,' 'Sketch-Book,' and 'Alhambra,' edited by William Lyon Phelps, instructor in English literature at Yale.

An improved and enlarged edition of the 'Handbook for Graduate Students,' issued last year by the Graduate Club of Harvard, may now be ordered of C. A. Duniway, Secretary, No. 54 Langdon Street, Cambridge, the price being fixed at ten cents. It is the only compact source of information in regard to the graduate courses of eighteen principal universities, their frequenting, degrees, fees, fellowships, etc., with parallel exhibits of corresponding courses, and scholastic records of the several instructors.

Mr. Joseph Landon's 'Principles and Practice of Teaching and Class Management' (Macmillan) is the outcome of nearly a quarter of a century's experience in an English training college. Its plan comprehends nearly all the topics taught in American grammar schools, with about 150 pages of matter on methods. To the teacher in quest of something fresh, the first impression will be disappointing. The author believes in the good old-fashioned teaching of English grammar, apparently never heard of child study or of vertical script, and has nothing to say concerning hygiene or physical training. The Grube method in arithmetic is well explained, and so is Mulhauser's method in writing, as if commendable novelties. The place of elementary science is discussed, and the claims of botany and elementary physics are recognized. The book is one of detail and does not readily lend itself to general treatment. Teachers will at once compare it with Fitch's well-known lectures on teaching, to the advantage of Mr. Landon, on the score of comprehensiveness and practical common sense. The volume is admirably indexed, well printed in four sizes of type, abounds in illustration, and, on the whole, it would be hard to find one of the same compass more helpful to a young teacher.

Prof. Charles F. Kroeh has followed up his method for learning French, which has met with a very favorable reception, with 'The Living Method for Learning to Think in Spanish' and 'The Living Method for Learning to Think in German,' both published by the author at Hoboken, N. J. It can be said of these books that, with their aid, a person of ordinary ability can by himself master the rudiments of these languages, and the foundation laid will be a broad and firm one. The aim is thoroughly practical, fitting the learner to enter into every-day speech, leaving the poets and the classical prose-writers to be encountered afterwards. Proceeding from the simplest statements to complex expressions, the author gives models for varying these phrases, utilizing all the forms previously introduced. This is no "six-weeks" method, but presupposes industry on the part of the student and indefatigable persistence in practice.

The name of Arthur Hugh Clough is still too little familiar in this country, where Prof. Norton's tiny "blue and gold" edition of a part of his poetic works (1862) has heretofore been the only popularizing agency. The new selections from his poems just added by Macmillan & Co. to their Golden Treasury Series comprise less matter than the foregoing, but also some fresh, and the print of the pretty volume is much more open and considerate of the reader's eye. "The Bothie" is given entire, but the "Amours de Voyage" only in excerpts, and the "Mari Magno" not at all. On the other hand, the extracts from "Dipsychus" are properly labelled. Some variants will be observed. For summer travel by land or sea the volume is an admirable companion, and for the reflective it will never cease to be precious in all conditions of life.

Mr. Claude Phillips's monograph on Frederick Walker in the June number of the *Portfolio* (Macmillan) is an admirable piece of criticism, and conveys a clear and just notion of the strength and weakness of that still lamented artist, whose early death (in 1875) was thought a serious blow to British art. What Walker would have accomplished if his career had been prolonged must remain for ever an open question, but it may be doubted if he was really progressing at the last, and if he will not be best remembered by his earlier and simpler work, some of which, especially in illustration, is nearly first-rate and has had a great influence on his successors. The reproductions in the *Portfolio* are very good and well chosen, though one regrets the absence of some pictures criticised at length in the text—particularly "The Plough" and "The Old Gate."

M. René Doumic, whose reputation as a critic and a pleasant writer is steadily growing, sends out a new volume, 'Écrivains d'aujourd'hui' (Paris: Perrin & Cie.), in which he analyzes with considerable acumen and skill the characteristics of contemporary romancers and critics. There is a good, but not wholly satisfying, account of Maupassant, a clever sketch of Bourget, worth reading, as is also that on Loti. This last does not match, however, the admirable study by Mr. Henry James, and it is M. Bourget who ought to give us an article on Maupassant. The other writers treated of are Brunetière, Lemaître, Faguet, and Lavisse. It is pleasant to note that we are promised two other books by M. Doumic: one on Lamartine, which is to form part of Hachette's "Grands Écrivains," and one on George Sand, which is to appear in the "Classiques Populaires."

The third series of 'Figures disparues,' by M. Eugène Spuller, has been brought out by Alcan. The articles appeared originally in the *République Française*, Gambetta's organ, and the change in the character of that journal has furnished M. Spuller with a text for an interesting estimate of journalism in France at the present time. The whole book, indeed, is attractive, the articles on Changarnier, MacMahon, J.-J. Weiss, Cardinal Lavigerie, Waddington, and Jules Ferry, being particularly noticeable.

Macmillan & Co. publish in a handsome volume 'Select Specimens of the Great French Writers,' the selections made by Mr. E. Fasnacht. They are prefaced by an abridgment of Vinet's "Discours sur la littérature française" and Faguet's chapter on "La littérature au XIXe siècle." The selections begin with the works of Corneille and are brought down to the present day. A biographical notice and criticisms of the writer and his work accompany the extracts from his books; Sainte-Beuve, Vinet, Faguet, and Saint-Victor being the most frequently cited. The selection of authors and extracts is very good on the whole, though one cannot help wondering at the omission of Descartes, Bourdaloue, Stendhal, Flaubert, and Leconte de Lisle, when room could be found for Vauvenargues, Napoleon I., and Arnault.

In 1889 M. Max Leclerc, the political economist and educationist, was charged with the duty of examining and reporting upon the English middle-class education. The result of this study is now given in the shape of a volume entitled 'L'Éducation des classes moyennes et dirigeantes en Angleterre' (Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer). It is crammed full of information on the education in the family and the school, on the various types of schools, public, proprietary, and private, the action and influence of the State, of the universities, and the press. The author's conclusions are to be given in a subsequent volume, as the present one has no room for them: it is a statement of facts, and a very interesting statement too.

M. Paul Melon has done meritorious work in his 'L'Enseignement Supérieur et l'Enseignement Technique en France' (Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.). It is a comprehensive account of all the institutions of learning which fall under the above designations. Not only is the book valuable as giving at a glance a succinct, but clear, view of the work done in each institution in every city and town of France where graduate or technical instruction is afforded, it is also a boon to American students who are thinking of going abroad, and who desire specific information on just the points covered by M. Melon.

A few years ago some citizens of Munich, Bavaria, sent a petition to the competent authorities requesting that arrangements might be made whereby their daughters, after having completed the courses of study prescribed in the Young Ladies' High School, might have an opportunity of pursuing optional studies

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for two years more in order to perfect themselves in certain special branches of learning. This petition was rejected on the ground that maidens ought to be sufficiently educated on reaching the age of eighteen, and should thenceforth devote themselves to domestic duties. The recent and radical change of public opinion on this subject is evident from the fact that on March 18 of the present year an association of ladies and gentlemen was formed at Munich, the aim of which is to establish in that city a *Mädchen-Gymnasium*, or institution designed to prepare girls for the university, giving them the same advantages in this respect that are now enjoyed by boys. The association began with seventeen members, and now numbers 122, and has 1,700 marks in the treasury. The executive committee is composed of twelve gentlemen and twelve ladies, including such persons as Magistrate's Councillor Friedrich, Prof. Dr. Günther, deputy, the celebrated poet Dr. Paul Heyse, Baron von Stauffenberg, member of the Imperial Diet and the Bavarian Parliament, Dr. Rohmeder of the municipal school-board, Lady Blennerhassett, the biographer of Madame de Staël, and others hardly less distinguished. The movement is very promising.

Prof. Oskar Lenz publishes in the Vienna *Neue Freie Presse* some data concerning the "Institut International Colonial," which was founded last January in Brussels, and which held its second meeting in that city on the 28th and 29th of May. The aims of the Institute are purely scientific, and comprise "the comparative study of methods of law and administration and of the natural resources of the various colonies; the promotion of international relations between persons interested in colonization, and the establishment of a central bureau for the interchange and publication of official documents," one of whose vehicles is to be a *Revue Internationale Coloniale*. The number of active members was originally fixed at sixty, to be divided among the various countries as follows: Great Britain 11, France 7, Holland 6, Germany 5, Russia 5, the United States, the Latin-American States, Spain, Portugal, Belgium, and Italy 3 each, Denmark 2, and all other countries not directly interested in colonization together 6. In addition there are to be associate, corresponding, and honorary members. Of the 60 active members thus contemplated only 29 have so far been elected, the most conspicuous names being: Léon Say, Paul Leroy-Beaulieu, in France; Lord Reay, Sir Alfred Lyall, in England; Dr. Herzog and Herr von der Heydt, in Germany; M. Camille Jenssen and Major Thys, in Belgium; Herr Frans Van de Putte and Prof. Van der Lith in Holland, and the Marquis Doria in Italy. America is thus far represented only by Baron Branco, the Brazilian Consul-General at Liverpool. Holland contributes the largest number of members, and her influence predominates in other ways. The Belgian Chamber has voted 10,000 francs to the Institute, which looks to its future publications for its regular source of income. The next meeting will be held at The Hague, coincidently with the International Geographical Congress, which is to assemble at London in the autumn of 1895.

The Strassburg publisher Heitz has just issued a complete collection of the poems of Walter von der Vogelweide, excellently translated into modern German by Eduard Kleber. It contains 183 *Lieder* and *Sprüche*, with an addendum of sixteen poems of doubtful authenticity. As is well known, this mediæval minnesinger was a bitter and persistent foe of the papacy, and in one of his sententious verses apostrophizes the *Opferstock*, or contribution for Peter's pence, as "Hêr Stoc," denouncing him as an evil emissary sent to drain the purses of the German poor in order to fill the coffers of the Pope. This bold personification was a puzzle to the rather unimaginative John Peter Uz, who in the last century rendered into modern German some of Walter's lyrics and kindly added a note stating that "Hêr Stoc" was probably a papal legate. We may also mention as an odd fate for an anti-papal poet that the statue of Walter von der Vogelweide recently erected at Botzen in the Tyrol (supposed to be the land of his birth) is regularly worshipped by the good Catholics of that country, who take it to be a representation of Christ, and there is very little doubt that the monument now being placed to his memory at Würzburg (where he is said to have died) will become an object of similar devotion. Indeed, Bavarian peasants, in passing the Royal Library at Munich, are wont to pay a like reverence to the sitting statues of Homer, Thucydides, Aristotle, and Hippocrates, which adorn the *perron* of that edifice, regarding them as figures of the four Evangelists.

For several years an elaborate exploration of the Baltic and North Seas has been carried on by Great Britain, Denmark, and Sweden, with especial reference to their respective fisheries. The methods of investigation and apparatus employed by the Swedish naturalists are described by Otto Pettersson in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for June. There are probably few travellers who will be attracted to the Bolivian Altiplanicie by Mr. D. R. Urquhart's account, in the same journal, of this forbidding region. It consists of the high plains or pampas lying between the mountain ranges at an average height of 12,000 feet above the sea-level. Economically it is interesting for the "abundant mineral deposits of silver, tin, copper, lead, antimony, etc., in the hills." The Indians nominally live in villages, which, however, are often found entirely deserted, the owners being away with their lamas or looking after their land. One village "is only really inhabited once a year, for about a week, when there is a great cattle fair, or *feria*." Dr. George Smith gives briefly some of the facts in regard to marriage and widowhood in India revealed by the late census. He says that polygyny is rare, only seven in every thousand married men having more than one wife. Polyandry is "restricted to the valleys of the Himalayas, where food is scarce, and to the Malabar coast in the south, where the ruling community, known as Nair, follow the matriarchal form, or succession through the female." The census also gives evidence of a growing decrease of girl infanticide, as well as of a general rise in the standard of living.

The *Geographical Journal* for June has for its opening article Mr. St. George R. Littledale's account of his adventurous journey last year across Asia from Batum to Pekin. The main object of his expedition, in which he was accompanied by his wife, was to shoot the wild camel. Apparently he saw but four, in the desert of Gobi, a little to the east of Lob Nor, all of which he shot. These rare animals were first discovered by Przhvalsky some fifteen years ago, and although now they are in an undoubtedly wild state, yet it is impossible to say, according to Sir William Flower, whether they are "really wild, that is, descended from camels which have never at any time been domesticated." It may be of especial interest to the advocates of free silver to know that on leaving Kashgar our traveller was obliged to carry with him the currency of the country in "chunks of silver of various weights, no two of a size, and making nearly two pony-loads." He accomplished some important geographical work, a part of his route being through unexplored country. An interesting description of the Indians inhabiting the valley of the river Napo, a tributary of the Amazon in Ecuador, is given by Mr. C. D. Tyler, whose observations were made during a three years' residence in this region. In addition to the vast vegetable wealth of its forests and cultivable land, "gold in illimitable quantities exists in the bed of the upper Napo."

The *Journal des Débats* for June 6 and 7 publishes reports of the examinations recently made by Drs. Backer and Bilhaut of the supposed remains of Louis XVII. in the old cemetery of Sainte-Marguerite. Both doctors agree in declaring that the bones cannot be those of the unfortunate Dauphin, since they form the skeleton of a child fourteen or fifteen years of age.

At the last session of the Icelandic Althing, a bill was passed providing for the establishment of a national university with a theological, medical, and law faculty. The plan has not yet been acted upon by the King, and as the sentiment of Icelandic students in Copenhagen is almost unanimously opposed to it, there is little probability of its becoming a law. The main objections urged are the financial condition of the country, which would make it impossible to obtain proper lecturers and apparatus, the absence of technical libraries, or provision for such in the future, the distance of the country from the centres of culture, and, last but not least, the possible removal of the scholarships open to Icelandic students at the University of Copenhagen. It was recommended, however, at a meeting of Icelanders recently held in Copenhagen, that a school for the training of native lawyers be established in Reykjavik, and that all other professional studies continue to be pursued at the University of Copenhagen. As the Icelanders have been famed for their love of law since Saga times, this modification of the original plan will probably win general approval.

Mr. Edward W. James writes to us from Norfolk, that the list of slave-owners in Princess Anne County, Va., which appeared in the January number of the "William and Mary College Quarterly Historical Papers," was derived by him from a copy of the third census, taken by William Bishop, assistant marshal, now to be found in the Clerk's Office of that county. This list was confined to the owners of not less than ten slaves. Mr. James has since completed his transcript, which will be printed in some future number of the *Quarterly*.

There are three newspapers, which divide about equally the period since 1810, that are indispensable to the student of American history. They are *Niles' Register*, the Boston *Liberator* (1831–1865), and the *Nation*. The *Liberator* is the fullest and most convenient repository of the spirit of the age during the anti-slavery contest, and its files have been remarkably preserved. The vast number of precise references to it in the four-volume Life of William Lloyd Garrison, which are in turn rendered accessible by a capacious analytic index, make its consultation a matter of great ease and certainty within the scope of that biography, which is virtually a history of the anti-slavery movement, moral and political. Librarians have recently had an opportunity to procure almost complete sets, hitherto stored by Mr. Francis J. Garrison, No. 4 Park Street, Boston. His

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stock has in consequence been rapidly reduced, and he now can supply only the volumes from 1852 to 1865 in some half-a-dozen sets, lacking a few numbers. It can truly be said that any fragment of the *Liberator* file is worth binding and preserving. The present chance to secure so considerable a portion of the series is final. The price, to librarians agreeing to bind, is $2 per volume.

—The neglect of the historical MSS. in the Bureau of Rolls and Library of the State Department has long been a source of complaint, and it is a matter for congratulation that the Department is making an intelligent effort to acquaint the public with the contents of the many collections in its keeping. The Bureau is now publishing a Bulletin, of which Nos. 1 and 3 are before us. No. 1 comprises a catalogue of the manuscript volumes containing the records and papers of the Continental Congress; an index to miscellaneous papers, which will form the chief staple of the Bulletins; and an appendix initiating the history of the Constitution of the United States, 1786–1870, by a simple printing of documents without any connecting text, though with occasional notes. The miscellaneous index is drawn from all the "chapters" in the State Department, and the items are traced by chapter reference (A, B, C, etc., the designation of the chapters being indicated as far as I). The group of items in No. 1 ranges alphabetically from Abbot to Loyalists, the last entry (chap. A, No. 51, consisting of intercepted letters, 1775–1781); in No. 3 it ranges from Adam to Zeisberger (the last entry being a repetition, by way of correction, of the same item entered in Bulletin No. 1 under "Feisberger," but alas! a fresh error is perpetrated by misspelling "Ziseberger"). In other words, a new Bulletin a new alphabet. While this is no doubt the only practicable and the fairest scheme of advertising the miscellany, it seems a pity that these titles should not be stereotyped as blocks for ultimate reassembling in one alphabet. As it is, the Bulletins are printed from type, and to the number of only 750 copies.

—Bulletin No. 3 is of special interest. The "arrangement" of the Washington Papers is given in chronological order, making reference to a particular series a simple task. Incidentally it might have been shown what had been printed. This is followed by a continuation of the Miscellaneous Index, more properly a calendar of the miscellaneous letters in the collections. When completed, this calendar will have high personal interest to those in search of the Revolutionary service of their ancestors. The most valuable portion of this issue is the literal reprint of the proceedings of the Federal Convention, taken from journal and papers deposited in the Department by President Washington in 1796. Elliott used this material, but united the records so as to make a continuous journal. In this new edition the different papers are kept distinct, and gain in definiteness. The corrections and interlineations made in the record are reproduced, as are even the endorsements by Pickering and others. A few notes would have aided reference from committee to House proceedings; and the paper on page 329 should have been identified as Randolph's plan, submitted on May 29. The tabular arrangement of the yea and nay votes is an advantage. A touch of the picturesque is to be found in the letter from Jonas Phillips, a Jew, pleading for religious liberty (p. 281). The print of these Bulletins is admirably clear. No. 2 will be a revision of the Calendar of the Correspondence of James Monroe printed in a small way four years ago by the Department. An index of the Jefferson Papers will be ready within a year. Vol. ii. of the history of the Constitution will be begun in Bulletin No. 5.

—Mr. Allen is doing a public service in these publications, and the issues testify to his painstaking care to secure accuracy. In the case of Pinckney's "Plan" in No. 3, it is a pity that he did not affix to the endorsement on the MS., "To be printed p. 11," the date, "1819," when Pinckney furnished the paper to the Secretary of State for publication. The fact is, as Madison states, that no copy was made of the original paper when it was presented to the Convention in 1787, and the original was not among the documents of the Convention intrusted to Washington and ultimately placed in the State Department. Thirty years after the adjournment, Pinckney supplied the document which Madison unsuspectingly inserted in his journal. Subsequently it was observed that this paper contained at least four provisions which Pinckney himself had opposed in the Convention; and it soon became apparent that the document had been altered to conform to the changes made by the Convention. Madison suggests that, as the changes were made, Pinckney incorporated them into his own copy, and that the erasures and interlineations, "after a lapse of more than thirty years," became "confounded in the mind of the author" with his original work. We believe that this paper in the State Department has never been subjected to critical analysis. It would be an interesting study for some competent hand to distinguish the original from the emendations, and demonstrate what parts of it are clearly and unquestionably Pinckney's. In claiming too much, honestly it may be, he *impaired his claim to everything*. As the "Plan" now stands in print, it is valueless as one of the sources of the Constitution.

—The latest noteworthy contribution to the Heine cult is an article in the June number of the *Deutsche Rundschau*, by a Frenchman, M. Jules Legras, professor in Bordeaux, who studied German literature in Berlin. M. Legras, who had long felt that the real history of Heine's stay in Paris, from 1831 to 1856, was not sufficiently well known, at last secured from the sons of the French publisher of Heine the loan of a bundle of papers which, shortly after the poet's death, was given by his widow to Michel Lévy. These papers were then turned over to M. Jean Bourdeau, the French translator of Heine's memoirs, who, however, seems to have advised against the publication as a whole. The collection consists of verses, since printed among the "Letzte Gedichte und Gedanken," French translations of some of Heine's poems, either by himself or others, and of letters. The letters are, in Mr. Legras's opinion, identical with the famous "Heine papers" which in 1868 were offered to the Duke de Gramont, then French Ambassador at Vienna, by a Herr von Friedland, the brother-in-law of Lassalle, who demanded 30,000 francs for them. Those papers were said to have contained, besides letters addressed by Heine to Thiers, Guizot, Mignet, the Princess Belgiojoso, and other important personages, a poem denouncing Napoleon III., and sixty-seven poems equally disrespectful towards the King of Prussia. The Duke de Gramont declined the offer, and it seems a pity that the poem against Napoleon (if it actually existed) was not preserved rather than the letters, which are not particularly striking. Heine does not rank among the famous letter-writers. Mr. Legras says that he never wrote a letter for the mere pleasure of the thing; that he seems always to have had a distinct purpose in view in his epistles. Only one letter is given in the original French, as showing Heine's French style, which was not faultless. The most interesting letter quoted is one addressed to the Princess Belgiojoso, whose acquaintance he made soon after his arrival in Paris, and in whose salon, frequented by Thiers, Mignet, A. Thierry, Musset, Cousin, Liszt, Ary Scheffer, and other members of the intellectual élite of Paris, Heine was thoroughly at home. Mignet, who was a special favorite of the handsome Italian, induced her to interest Thiers in Heine's behalf, and, according to M. Legras's investigations, it was Thiers and not Guizot who, in 1835 or 1836, granted Heine the Government subvention of 4,800 francs which his enemies have made so much of. Guizot's son himself told Mr. Legras that his father, on assuming office, was requested by Thiers to continue Heine's pension.

—It appears that the Princess Belgiojoso, who acquired considerable influence over Heine, made strong efforts to wean him from the charms of his Mathilde, and, yielding for a time to her representations, he went in 1835 to Boulogne, whence he wrote, both to Mignet and to Campe, his publisher, who probably dreaded the vulgarizing influence of Mathilde on the poet's writings, that he was "cured and purified." But the cure did not last long, and Mathilde soon became Madame Heine. The Princess bore him no grudge on that account, and he continued to correspond with her. In the letters to Mathilde published by M. Legras, Heine speaks of his eternal financial difficulties, for which he reproaches Campe directly in a letter in which he says: "I cannot yet believe that you are willing to cheat me for the sake of so paltry a sum." But Heine's denunciations of his publisher must not be taken too literally, any more than his occasional poetic glorifications of him. Of pathetic interest are the missives to his French publisher, in scarcely legible scrawls, continued almost up to the moment of his death, betraying the extreme care Heine bestowed on the proof-reading of his works, and occasionally revealing the grim humor which he commanded in the midst of his agonies. Two months before his death he wrote to Lévy: "I have been so ill these last few days that some German countrymen of mine who had come to see the Exposition, postponed their departure in the hope of being able to attend my funeral. But they found themselves out of pocket after all."

—No sooner had Dr. Quidde's article "Caligula" appeared in pamphlet form than it was severely denounced by the Berlin *Kreuzzeitung* on account of what might be called its strong local coloring and the implicit parallelism between Roman Cæsarism in the first and German Cæsarism in the nineteenth century. In this criticism the organ of Prussian conservatism singled out the autocratic apothegms of the young Roman emperor as peculiarly insinuative and offensive. To this attack Dr. Quidde replied that the pamphlet is an historical study, both in form and in contents, and adheres strictly to the theme; that he has not been guilty of any distortion or misrepresentation, has lugged in nothing foreign to the subject, and has made no statement except on the best authority and in perfect accord with other writers. He admits that "the brochure is not written in the style of anti-

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quarian pedantry, but with lively historical-political interest, more in the manner of the publicist than of the professor," but repudiates all responsibility for what it may suggest to others, and especially for the invidious inferences drawn by the critic of the *Kreuzzeitung*, who also accuses him of entertaining republican views of government—a charge which he does not deny. The immediate effect of this controversy was to cause an increased demand for the censured work which the booksellers were hardly able to supply. Meanwhile a number of the Hamburg *General-Anzeiger* has been seized and confiscated by the police, and the editor threatened with prosecution for lese-majesty, for publishing a review of the pamphlet with extracts, while the pamphlet itself remains on sale and is exposed in all the windows of the Hamburg bookstores without molestation—a striking illustration of the absurdities and vagaries of the censorship of the press when administered by superserviceable officials. Even the Bavarian Academy of Sciences could not repress the spirit of loyalty which usually animates such learned bodies, and has shown more zeal than discretion in discussing the affair and expressing its disapproval of the publication from a "scientific" point of view. Strictly speaking, this can only mean that injustice has been done to the character of Caligula, or that the allusions to King Ludwig II. are irrelevant, since there is no reference to any other sovereign. To this stricture Dr. Quidde has replied that, while it is perfectly proper for individual members of the Academy as scholars to criticise his work, it does not concern them in their corporate capacity, since it is not an academical dissertation issued under the auspices of that institution. A telegram from Berlin announces the fact that the Emperor William has read the brochure with complacency—*mit gutem Behagen*.

—From Dyrsen & Pfeiffer, successors to F. W. Christern, comes a new volume by the well-known Bonapartist partisan and enthusiast, Frédéric Masson. The title of the work is 'Napoléon chez lui: La Journée de l'Empereur aux Tuileries' (Paris: E. Dentu). To M. Masson all of Napoleon's deeds bear witness of a God. His volume published last year described 'Napoléon et les Femmes,' and M. Masson carefully tracked the Corsican through all his liaisons, both great and small, with scrupulous exactitude and with an air of devout reverence. 'Napoléon et les Femmes' had at least a sociological or pathological interest, but there is not even a spice of wickedness to relieve the deadly dulness of 'Napoléon chez lui.' Here may be found minute descriptions of the uniforms of Napoleon's guards, biographies of his various valets, the kinds of soap that Napoleon used on his hands, the quality of the Emperor's underwear, and the prices of his various articles of raiment. It may be of service to some one to know how the pigeon-holes in Napoleon's desk were classified, how many papers he signed in one day, what expenditures were involved, and how many hours of continuous service were exacted from his private secretaries; but surely only an idle mind will care to learn the names of the Emperor's cooks, the kinds of wine he drank, the size of his official decorations, and the number of his handkerchiefs. Nevertheless, to M. Masson the rubbish of Napoleon's life is all fine gold. The contents of his snuff-box seem as worthy of study as the contents of a state paper, and the attendant sneezes are imagined with pious emotion. F. de Myrbach provides a half dozen illustrations to fit the text. Instead of Napoleon on the bridge at Lodi or standing guard over the sleeping sentinel, we have here Napoleon clad in an undershirt and shaving himself, and Napoleon drinking a cup of tea. While the author heaps up these rags of history about his hero, he never loses his attitude of worship. Even pronouns that refer to Bonaparte are capitalized as though they dealt with Deity. Thus, we read of "l'image souveraine de Celui qui fut, entre les hommes, le plus près de ce que l'on nommait un Dieu." M. Masson promises a series of volumes of this same sort. Unless the sense of humor and the capacity for ennui are disappearing together, his labors ought to do a much needed service towards extinguishing the recent rekindling of the Napoleonic legend.

RECENT NOVELS.

The Holy Cross, and Other Tales. By Eugene Field. Cambridge: Stone & Kimball.

Katharine Lauderdale. By F. Marion Crawford. Macmillan.

Bayou Folk. By Kate Chopin. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Pembroke. By Mary E. Wilkins. Harper & Brothers.

Thorough. By Mary A. M. Marks. 3 vols. London: Bentley & Son. 1894.

Mr. Field's little volume of stories is attractively printed, with hints at the archaic which suit very well the matter of parts of the text; two or three of the stories dealing with folk-lore, and with that kind of aloofness from to-day which makes appropriate the use of such phrases as "It is to tell of," "Naught recked he," "Great marvel had he to this thing," "A full evil cat," "A monster ribald dog pup," "Now wit ye well," and so on, now like William Morris, and anon like Pepys, and again after Brander Matthews. Occasionally the grammar is a trifle archaic also, as, "whereby not only you and me but even the Jew shall be redeemed to Paradise." From this the note changes to the ultra-gushing or free-sugar style, thick with roses, angels, and birds, and lastly we have the American-humorist style—a manner for every mood. Personally we own to a preference over all the rest for "Daniel and the Devil" and for "Félice and Petit Poulain." In these the fun and the fancy of Mr. Field leave their high-water mark, and flow along that middle way wherein he walks most safely. The one is less strained than the over-humorous "Methuselah"; the other, a charming sketch of a French horse carried off to do duty for the Prussians, is free from the pulpiness of certain other pages. There is, however, a genuineness about even the long comings of Mr. Field which disarms irritation. It is not that affectation injures his writings; what we remark is, that lush expression does not befit a tranquilly poetic feeling, nor publicity a humor meant for the table.

Mr. Crawford's latest novel suffers from luxuriance of another sort, that of analysis and of incident with no outcome. We have two volumes of 'Katharine Lauderdale,' which take us only from Monday to Friday, and only to the beginning of Katharine's career. Not one of the dozen stories begun in the two volumes is ended, for, under the peculiar circumstances of the heroine's marriage, that too is less the end of a story than it is even in real life—the author's satire, perhaps, on life? This is hardly artistic, although it leaves us very ready to be interested in the promised sequel. To write two volumes and not solve one mystery is hardly playing fair. That it is endurable is a great tribute to the author's skill; that it is absorbing is to say that Mr. Crawford's pen is even mightier than the scissors. The book, it is superfluous to add, is bubbling with good sayings of both the graver and the lighter sort. Mr. Crawford never disappoints one there, nor in his smooth phrasing; and though there is endless repetition of the what, the when, the why, and the how, yet there is a reconciling absence of egoism which makes more tolerable than in another author the long, long stretches of what children call "the thick part" of his pages. One volume of 'Katharine Lauderdale' would have been enough, considering how short a distance she leads us, and considering, too, that the story of a man's temptations to drunkenness is not one to be detailed unnecessarily, and as an *opération de luxe*. The final scene, where the hero becomes autobiographic at a dinner party, strikes a false note from every point of view. There are many new and clever characters whom it will be interesting to meet again. The family Lauderdale, indeed, from "the primeval Alexander," four generations ago, down to the Katharine of the present time, are an American house of Saracinesca. The race traits and the race variations are subtly indicated, and will, no doubt, receive further light in the future. The Lauderdales ought to find it extremely interesting reading, and the public will if Mr. Crawford will not forget that blood, being thicker than water, may coagulate if it is not kept in motion.

Of writing many stories of Louisiana life there is no end. It is not surprising, for the material embraces all that is most picturesque, whether the scenes of action be New Orleans or the inland parishes, whether Creoles or negroes be the actors. Kate Chopin has written of the 'Bayou Folk' dwelling in Natchitoches Parish, who are of every race and admixture of race that can be evolved from stems American, French, Spanish, Indian, Negro. Her stories are among the most clever and charming that have seen the light. Her pen is an artist's in choice of subject, in touch, and in forbearance. There is never a word nor an idea too much, and in the score of sketches in which the same names often recur, there is no repetition, nevertheless, of herself or of others. Hers is good work, and as interesting as the good often is not.

Miss Wilkins, in her long "short story," 'Pembroke,' moves a step forward and outward from the plain, unvarnished style she has hitherto employed. Here are more phrases, more description, more comment. She is perhaps uniquely the writer—may her tribe increase—of whom one can truly say that this is a healthy sign; it suits the enlarged scope of her book, which yet retains the quality that is all Miss Wilkins's own, never so conspicuously so as now that she has a school of imitators. The branches of her genius seem to be spreading when one reads such sentences as this of old Margaret, the only servant in Pembroke: "People saluted her with respect, and her isolation of inequality gave her a reversed dignity." Or this, of the springtime of the year: "The air was full of that strange fragrance which is more than fragrance, since it strikes the thoughts which come in the spring alone, being the very odor thrown off by the growing motion of life and the resurrection." Of a cold, hard woman, visited by neighbors on what she takes to be an errand of scrutiny: "Deborah, sitting erect in one of her best flag-bottomed chairs, looked as if she were alone in

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the room." Of a woman of short and lean figure: "Mrs. Ray had never considered herself a small woman; she seemed always to see over the tops of other women's heads."

"Sarah Barnard, during all absences of her family, dug busily at imaginary pitfalls for them; had they all existed, the town would have been honeycombed."

"Deborah never yielded to any of the vicissitudes of life; she met them in fair fight like enemies, and vanquished them, not with trumpet and spear, but with daily duties."

"There was that tone of command in her voice which only a woman can accomplish. It was full of that maternal supremacy which awakens the first instinct of obedience in man, and has more weight than the voice of a general in battle."

"Sylvia felt her battle was over, and she felt the peace of defeat."

The peace of defeat! That phrase alone is a lien upon Fame; and all these turns of expression declare a new freedom of treatment, a loosened rein to the imaginative side of perception.

As to the story itself, it is still of the New England soil. Gray, grim, rock-bound as it is, it yields the bloom of mayflowers; dark under lowering skies, it is lighted with warm gleams where an occasional sun breaks through. Here is all the hardness of the race; here is all their faithful fortitude. Here, too, are their eccentricities; in another clime they would become comicalities; in such earth they go only so far as to wear an air of being the obverse side of the Divine Wrath. The village of Pembroke is to all New England what New England is to the rest of America—a mother tincture of the hardness, the softness, the conscience, the passion, the ice, the fire, that the Pilgrims brought and left there. In Pembroke the ruling motive of life is a fierce human will. "Barney Thayer," says his sweetheart, "has got a terrible will that won't always let him do what he wants to himself." Barney Thayer's mother, the invincible Deborah, bequeathed him this will; her own wrecked the lives of nearly all who came near her, while yet she was passionately struggling to save them from hell-fire. Deborah's sister, Hannah Berry, had the same will, and wreaked it on her husband and sister. Cephas Barnard had it, and made his family eat sorrel pies. Richard Alger had it, and it made him torture, for nothing, during long, long years the woman he loved. Charlotte Barnard had it for good, and turned it to loving account. This is the gist of the book—the "terrible will" of the New Englander intensified by the conditions of narrow life in a small old village, isolation, close neighborship of generations, heredity with too little variation. According to the subject it works upon, does it become the will that "won't let him do what he wants to himself"—that holds in the passive clutch of a groove, or that perseveres and attains. The work, in fact, is a treatise on the Divine Will manifested as the New England Won't, under circumstances which many of us have seen and a few observed, but none brought to the daylight of recognition as fully as Mary Wilkins. Miss Fuller has indeed made a philosophic study of family traits in small towns, with a different trend. She dwells upon the effect of widening influences in modifying and diffusing the original family features. Miss Wilkins's study is of the converse and deeply tragic side—the crushing consequences wrought by the concentration of such traits when narrowed to a very few families, leading forlornly stifled lives. The gloom would be too heavy were it not that Miss Wilkins has set her story among her own familiar triumphs of detail, which never fail to attract and hold.

Were it not for the designation on the title-page, and that hitherto Mrs. Marks has been known as a writer of fiction, we should scarcely have been inclined to range the volumes before us with other late productions in light literature. 'Thorough' is in truth an historical treatise of a grave character—covering twenty years of troubled Irish history—opening, as may naturally be supposed from the name, with the Earl of Strafford's rule, and ending with the period when the country lay prostrate at the feet of Cromwell. Bishop Bedell, Owen Roe O'Neill, Ormond, the Nuncio, and other characters of the time pass across the stage. There are many fine descriptions of scenery and touching love passages (some of them within prison walls). There is deep pathos. The story for the most part is written in quaint language as if penned by some contemporary. The complicated history of the period is worked out with a conscientious effort after truth. We cannot but suspect that the scheme of the book was suggested by Tolstoi's 'War and Peace.' Contrary to what is the case in many works of the kind, the story is most prominent and interesting at the commencement—we are led more and more into the history of the time, and the story falls into the background as it proceeds. The apt and abundant extracts from writers contemporary with the period treated, placed at the head of each chapter, are some index to the labors the author must have given to preparation.

As a novel, 'Thorough' cannot be considered a success. It throws a vivifying light upon history, and will leave on the interested reader an impression not likely soon to be effaced. Atrocities committed by the Irish are not spared; but the motive of the book is evidently to show that they sprang from "natural" causes, and from the treatment to which the people had been subjected. The following will illustrate the general temper of the author; it is one of those numerous passages in which the supposed narrator stands apart from narrative to moralize thereon:

"Was there ever a war yet in this world, I will ask you, where there was none but lawful killing on the battlefield? no passions raised but what the first breath of the recall blew away? no violence done by soldiers drunk with wine and victory? no private spoiling by conquerors greedy of plunder? no pilferings by armed men hungry from unarmed men full? Do you think that in all wars, save Irish ones, men can go out to kill one another one day, and be the next but as haymakers coming from the field? And truly it turns one's stomach to read in *Politicus* and *Britannicus* of the shooting in cold blood of prisoners of war in England and Scotland, told so much as without the quiver of an eyelid, and then on the next page to find the newsman in a pious bewonderment at the incredible cruelty of the poor naked Irish, risen at last on their hereditary oppressors."

Some doings of Mrs. Marks's countrymen in Matabeleland which have been enacted since these words were written, give them additional point.

SOME MUSICAL BOOKS.

Mediæval Music. By R. C. Hope. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The Pedals of the Pianoforte. By Hans Schmitt. Philadelphia: T. Presser.

Modern Singing Methods. By J. F. Botume. Boston: O. Ditson & Co.

Musical Gestures. By J. F. Bridge. Novello, Ewer & Co.

History of the Handel and Haydn Society. By C. C. Perkins and John S. Dwight. Boston: A. Mudge & Son.

Masters of French Music. By Arthur Hervey. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Letters of Franz Liszt. Translated by Constance Bache. 2 vols. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Mr. Hope's book on 'Mediæval Music' is written in that iconoclastic spirit which is the fashion just now in musical literature. It must be admitted that there is much to commend in this fashion, in view of the "facts" in musical history which have been copied dozens of times into new books, although they are incapable of verification. The study of mediæval music is, in truth, such an extremely difficult subject that, owing to the complexity of the notation, an original investigator needs to bestow as much time on this dead musical language as he would on Sanskrit. Mr. Hope, as editor of the 'Popish Kingdome,' might be supposed to be in sympathy with his field of labor, and he certainly shows the spirit of the independent investigator. He shows, for instance, that one of the great heroes of early Christian music, Pope Gregory, to whom all sorts of reforms are ascribed, really did nothing of importance for music, being apparently quite indifferent to that art, as may be inferred from the fact that in his voluminous correspondence of 800 letters "there is not a single line, allusion, or hint of any kind respecting either the chant of the Church or of an Antiphonary." Taken as a whole, Mr. Hope's book presents a clear view of a difficult subject, and we would only call attention to the fact that his statement on page 15 that the oldest scale is the pentatonic does not harmonize with the statement regarding Egyptian flutes made on page 21.

We had occasion a few months ago to commend a brief and practical treatise on the pianoforte pedal by Mr. A. Venino. Hans Schmitt's treatise on this subject is a much older book, but it did not appear in an English version till after Venino's, the translation being by Mr. F. S. Shaw. While Mr. Venino's book is somewhat more up to date and practical, Schmitt's is more elaborate. Pianists would do well to secure them both, and try to make up for the long and extraordinary neglect of this extremely important branch of piano-playing. Schmitt relates how, when he conceived the idea of writing such a treatise, he hastily examined Marx's 'Compositionslehre,' fearing lest he might have been anticipated, but found that the word pedal was not even once mentioned. Nor was this strange, for in the old school of pianoforte-playing, as represented by Hummel, "the value of the pedal for harmonic and tone coloring purposes was not at all understood, the pedal being, indeed, looked at rather askance as a means of creating confusion." The Chopin-Liszt school took a very different view of the matter—so different that the Frenchman, Alfred Quidant, was quite justified in giving his brochure on the pedal the title 'The Soul of the Piano.' Rubinstein is quoted as saying: "I consider the art of properly using the pedal as the most difficult problem of higher piano-playing, and if we have not as yet heard the instrument at its best, the fault possibly lies in the fact that it has not been fully understood how to exhaust the capabilities of the pedal." Paderewski seems to have discovered what Rubinstein, Liszt, and Chopin had left undone, and when it is borne in mind how much of his marvellous success is owing to his masterly treatment of the pedal in securing orchestral variety of coloring, pianists need no further stimulus to a careful study of the art.

Mr. Botume's little book on 'Modern Sing-

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ing Methods' appears in a second edition with an appendix on "The Old Italian School," "Style," etc. Even with this appendix it contains only forty-four pages, and must, therefore, be considered chiefly in the light of a guide to longer books on the various topics discussed, these books being always mentioned. Mr. Botume, a Harvard graduate, is well known as a singing teacher in Boston, and his advice may be safely accepted. We have only one criticism to make. In common with most teachers of the voice, Mr. Botume cannot get rid of the absurd idea that Patti is "the last surviving example of the great era of singing." What is "singing"? Is florid song the only kind of song? Are not the operas of Weber and Wagner, the songs of Schubert and Franz, infinitely greater and nobler music than that which Patti sings? In our opinion Lilli Lehmann, Rosa Sucher, Amalia Materna, and Frau Joachim were, in their best days, much better singers than Patti, because their branch of the art was a much nobler one. We advise Mr. Botume to await the English version of Prof. Hey's method of dramatic song, now in preparation, and to devote a special appendix to it in the third edition of his guide.

Perhaps England is not a musical country, but it is nevertheless productive of some curious musical schemes. The Tonic-Sol-Fa as a method of vocal notation is extremely prevalent in that country, while the more musical countries give it no attention. And now comes Dr. Bridge with still another notation, which is so extraordinary that we should be inclined to take it as an elaborate and rather ponderous joke, were it not incorporated as a new number in Novello, Ewer & Co.'s well-known and useful series of music primers. Dr. Bridge's treatise is an attempt to impress upon the minds of pupils the ordinary musical signs by gestures. We open it and find a series of illustrations representing boys making various deaf-mute signs to represent whole notes, half-notes, rests, stave, clefs, sharps and flats, and so on. He thinks this system may be useful to children in the nursery and for country choirs which are "often trained by the wife or the daughter of the clergyman." But why should not the wife or daughter of the clergyman simply use a blackboard and chalk and ordinary notes and rests and stave, like all other civilized musical people, instead of teaching poor children an elaborate gesture language utterly useless for all real musical purposes? The more we think about the matter, the more we feel tempted to consider it a joke after all.

The oldest and most important large choral organization in America, the Handel and Haydn Society of Boston, has issued a volume of 667 pages embodying its history from 1815 to 1890. The editors, Mr. C. C. Perkins and Mr. John S. Dwight, were greatly aided in their labors by a collection of newspaper clippings placed at their disposal by Mr. S. Jennison. The first pages are devoted to an amusing sketch of early musical atrocities in New England. In 1721, for instance, the Rev. T. Walter published a singing book in which he declares of the four or five tunes then in use that they sounded

> "like five hundred different tunes roared out at the same time, and so little in time that they were often one or two words apart; so hideous as to be bad beyond expression, and so drawling that the singer had sometimes to pause twice on one word to take breath."

From this state of affairs to the present condition of choral music as exemplified by the Handel and Haydn Society, is a wide step indeed. Even within the last quarter of a century the progress has been immense, as can be seen by comparing the programmes before that period with those after. For many years Handel and Mendelssohn were the chief and almost exclusive attractions. While the "Messiah" and the "Creation" had their first complete performance as early as 1818, Bach's "Passion" was not given entire till 1879, and in 1870 we find Mr. Dwight pleading hard for at least some selections. In recent years Bach has received more attention, but he will not have his day till the next century. Among the reprinted criticisms those of Mr. Apthorp are of especial interest and value.

Mr. Hervey's 'Masters of French Music' is one of a series which now includes two others, 'Masters of English Music' and 'Masters of German Music.' It is entertainingly written, in a style light enough to make it good for summer reading, and at the same time substantial and reliable. Such a book was really needed, for biographies of eminent French musicians are remarkably scarce in the English language. The present somewhat artificial prominence of French opera in New York (the champions of both German opera and Italian opera having set it up as a sort of neutral ground) ought to help Mr. Hervey's book to the success which it deserves. It considers in considerable detail the lives of Thomas, Gounod, Saint-Saëns, Massenet, Reyer, Bruneau, and in a final chapter the minor composers of the day. The appendix contains a convenient list of the works of the principal musicians. The longest and most interesting chapters are those on Gounod and Saint-Saëns, while in the one on Bruneau the author gives a good glimpse of the very latest tendencies in French music. We cordially commend this book to all who are interested in music, biographically or critically.

Our long review of the original edition of Liszt's letters, in German and French, dispenses us from taking any further notice of the English translation now before us than to say that it has been admirably executed by Miss Constance Bache, and that the publishers have contributed their share to the attractiveness of a work which of course ought to be in every musical library. The English version contains four letters not included in the German edition. In one of these Liszt writes in reference to his visit to England, after an absence of over forty years: "The *accented point* of my coming to London is to be present at the 'Elizabeth' performance. It was this that decided my coming, and it is to be hoped it will be a success." It is perhaps curious that not only is the one important biography of Liszt written by a woman—Lina Ramann—but his letters have been collected and translated by two women—La Mara (Marie Lipsius) and Miss Bache.

RECENT LAW BOOKS.

THE high estimation in which the Count de Franqueville, as a critic of English institutions, is held by the English people, strongly reminds one of the feeling entertained by Americans towards Mr. James Bryce, author of 'The American Commonwealth.' Both have apparently achieved the double success of seeing foreigners more clearly than the latter see themselves, and of obtaining from them an acknowledgment of the fact. The latest of several works by Count de Franqueville on English institutions is concerned with the judicial system of Great Britain ('Le Système Judiciaire de la Grande Bretagne,' Paris: J. Rothschild). In the space of two volumes the subject is divided into three parts, treating respectively, (1) of the organization of the English courts; (2) of their procedure, civil and criminal, and (3) of the judicial systems in Scotland and Ireland. The work is not, and is not intended to be, an exposition or criticism of substantive law. Its scope is confined to a concise statement of the organization and procedure of existing legal machinery, including an interesting account of the inns of court, the bar, the magistracy, the jury, and the police. So far as is necessary to explain existing institutions to the general reader, the work is historical; but the historical introductions are not intended for the specialist. Neither is the character of the book critical. Here and there, however, we find rather striking critical judgments. For example, after explaining at length English criminal procedure, the author states that it would be impossible to imagine a system giving to a person accused, who is both guilty and rich, more facilities for escaping a conviction, and assuring to a person accused, who is both innocent and poor, fewer facilities for demonstrating his innocence—an opinion not unnatural in one accustomed to the quick and easy methods of French criminal practice, and curiously like opinions sometimes expressed in this country nowadays.

The merits of a work of this kind, if merits it have, should consist in clearness, conciseness, and yet completeness of statement; excellence of arrangement, style, and temper; and accuracy. The first six qualities are, we think, possessed by this book to a high degree. Its admirable temper again reminds us of 'The American Commonwealth.' As to the last-named quality, which is perhaps of the first importance, we need only state that a careful English critic, on a thorough examination of the work before us, has been unable to detect a single serious misstatement of fact, and, when compelled by the exigencies of criticism to point to some defect, lest he might give the book a character "unredeemed by a single vice," has referred to several mistakes in spelling and the danger of relying upon Lord Campbell and Lord Macaulay as authorities on matters of law.

Mr. Joseph H. Beale, jr., has prepared a fourth edition of 'Parsons on Partnership' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.), and, by the addition of further and more recent authorities, the elimination of old and the insertion of new matter in the text, together with some excellent new notes and a chapter on business combinations and "trusts," has rendered a valuable book, which had become somewhat obsolete, again serviceable to the profession. Prof. Parsons was among the foremost to grasp the mercantile theory of a partnership as an entity distinct from the partners themselves, which was finally adopted by the House of Lords in Cox vs. Hickman; but the conception had not obtained a wide recognition when the former editions of the work were published, and was not treated in them. Mr. Beale has therefore entirely rewritten those chapters which deal with the nature and test of a partnership, and his statement of the development of the law is interesting and instructive.

'The Laws and Jurisprudence of England and America' (Little, Brown & Co.) is the title of a series of twelve lectures delivered by Judge John F. Dillon before the law students of Yale University, the main purpose of which is "to inspire a patriotic . . . regard for the laws and institutions of our country, . . . to incite enthusiasm in the study of the law, . . . and to exhibit the excellences of our legal system" as compared with the Conti-

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nental law. These lectures are a general and somewhat desultory treatment of a very large subject. They are, however, suggestive, and well calculated to achieve their immediate purpose. Judge Dillon has an interesting, if somewhat inflated, style, and his remarks upon such "living issues" as legal education, trial by jury, case-law, the law reports, codification, and law reform have a positive character which is refreshing, if not wholly convincing, and is not unbecoming in a judge of wide experience and learning.

The inductive or "case-method" of teaching the English common law, introduced into the Harvard Law School by Prof. Langdell twenty years ago, has been successfully applied by Dr. Freeman Snow to the teaching of international law in Harvard University, and his collection of cases ('Snow's Cases on International Law,' The Boston Book Co.) is primarily intended to be used for that purpose. Besides the important cases, this collection contains a valuable syllabus in which references to the works of many of the most eminent writers of different countries are grouped under specific heads, thus making it possible to compare their opinions with the sources upon which they rely. The task of selection and discrimination, always a difficult one in preparing a book of this kind, has, we think, been performed by Dr. Snow with marked success. He has furnished another illustration of the increasing application of the historical method of inquiry to all branches of knowledge which have had a long period of development.

'Demarest on Elevated Railroad Law' (Baker, Voorhis & Co.) is a statement and critical discussion of the law as laid down by the New York courts determining the respective rights and remedies of elevated-railroad companies and "abutting owners" of real-estate. This law is the result of a vast mass of litigation following the decision in the now famous case of Story vs. the New York Elevated Railroad Company, that the abutting owner, even although he does not own the fee of the street, is entitled to compensation for injury to his property caused by the introduction of the roads. The decision in the Story case is often said to be judicial legislation, and Mr. Demarest is evidently of that opinion, though he concedes that it, and others which have followed and extended the principle it established, are in accord with the dictates of natural justice. The law of elevated roads is a new growth, and its development in different jurisdictions must depend largely upon the construction put on the clauses in the various State constitutions providing for compensation when private property is taken for public uses. As an historical statement of the manner in which different questions have come before the courts in New York, and of the precise points adjudicated, Mr. Demarest's book should be of considerable value.

'Norton on Bills and Notes' and 'Clark's Criminal Law' (St. Paul, Minn.: West Publishing Co.) are two legal "hand-books" of which the *raison d'être* is not obvious in view of the overgrown literature of the law on these subjects. The former is intended for the use of students, but it is difficult to perceive in what respect it has peculiar merits for such use. The meagre citation of authorities renders it useless to the practitioner. The second is intended to be a concise statement of the common law of crimes. In both books much importance is attached to definitions which are made the basis of the text. The arrangement of the text is mechanical, rather than logical, and lacks unity.

'Bigelow on Bills and Notes' is the third contribution by the author to the excellent series of "Elementary Law Treatises" published by Little, Brown & Co., of which fourteen have now appeared. This work, like those on equity and torts by the same author, is a concise summary of the substantive law of the subject as it now exists. There is little discussion of the cases, and, excepting a very brief historical sketch in the introduction, little explanation of the growth of the law out of the custom of merchants. Strict limitations of space probably made the omission of both features necessary. Moreover, the book is designed, and is admirably adapted, to be used in connection with a selection of cases, following the order of the text. As a clear, compact, and accurate statement of the law this little book has much merit.

Prof. Isaac F. Russell has prepared a series of "outline lectures," intended "to serve as a text-book on elementary law," and published under the title 'Outline Study of Law' (New York: L. K. Strouse & Co.). They are summaries of what has been presented orally to students. They cover a wide range of subjects, from the nature of law in general to the law of divorce and crimes. In their present form it cannot be said that, even as "outlines," they deal adequately with the subjects treated. Each lecture is a mere collection of general remarks about its subject, put together without much attempt at orderly arrangement or proportion. A book on elementary law should exhibit, as far as possible, the relationship between different branches of the law, and their proper classification. In these lectures no such object has apparently been kept in view.

Theatricals: Two Comedies. By Henry James. Harper & Brothers.

In his little preface to the two comedies in this pretty volume, Mr. James says it is only fair to mention that they were conceived and constructed wholly in the light of possible representation in particular conditions which it was hoped they might successfully meet, but with which they had not the good fortune to consort. This means, presumably, that he wrote them with the intention of fitting a particular actor or a particular company, and failed to please his prospective customer. It is to be hoped that his present disappointment may prevent him from making any similar experiments in the future, for this dramatic tailoring, although it has been practised profitably by playwrights capable of better things, belongs to an inferior order of work, unworthy of men possessed of real literary ability, is seldom valuable even when most remunerative, and is an unmitigated evil, so far as the stage itself is concerned, inasmuch as it encourages players to perpetuate and intensify their own personal characteristics and mannerisms, whereas it is the first duty of a conscientious performer to strive to get rid of them. Nothing is more responsible for the present decadence of acting as an art than the system by which a handful of popular actors are enabled to play one character, or one type of character, for a long succession of years, while everybody else, in the "supporting" casts, is reduced to the lowest possible level of insignificance.

Perhaps one of the reasons why Mr. James's comedies failed to prove acceptable was that all the good things in them are not monopolized by the leading lady, but are distributed with some sense of proportion among a number of personages. But it is only fair to the managers to add that there are manifestly other difficulties in the way of a successful representation, such as a weak motive in the one case, a confused plot in the other, a lack of dramatic and theatrical action in both, and also of that sympathetic quality which is so essential, but so difficult to define or describe. Above all, the dialogue is of that polished and artificial kind which demands light, brilliant, incisive delivery if it is to be used effectively before the footlights, and which is apt to fall perfectly flat from the lips of the actors of to-day, who talk with great facility, but know little about the possibilities of speech. On the whole, Mr. James's plays are more likely to meet with judicious appreciation in their present form than if an attempt had been made to represent them upon the stage. At all events, the reader can enjoy the smoothness and neatness of their literary style, the compact and forcible expression, and the humor, which is of far finer quality than that current in the contemporary theatre, even if it is not always quite so spontaneous as it might be. They have also the rare merit of being written upon the lines of genuine comedy. Studies of life, in the fullest sense of these words, they can scarcely claim to be, for the characters are fashioned, for the most part, after very familiar stage models, and the treatment of them is governed, apparently, by no other law than that of theatrical exigency, especially in the matter of exits and entrances. But in no case does Mr. James overstep the modesty of nature. His machinery is often clumsy and his situations forced, but his incidents, although not always probable in their order or consequences, are not in themselves extravagant, while his personages conduct themselves in accordance with the rules of the society in which they are supposed to move.

Of the two plays the first, which is entitled "Tenants," is the better, although the subject is not particularly agreeable or the outcome particularly convincing. It tells the story of a retired diplomat, who, from honorable scruples, sends his legitimate son away from home rather than appear to connive at his marriage with his ward, a great heiress, but nevertheless favors the suit of his illegitimate son when the latter unexpectedly appears upon the scene with his mother. In the end the legitimate son carries the day, and the father makes reparation by marrying his former mistress. This arrangement defeats the machinations of the villain, a blackmailing captain, and is supposed to insure general peace. How such a marriage would put an end to the scandal is not explained. The second comedy, "Disengaged," is a story of serio-comic intrigue, in which a curiously inexperienced guardsman, after being captured by a match-making mamma for her insipid daughter, is rescued by a brilliant widow, who marries him herself, while the daughter is handed over to a gay young diplomat, who had conspired against his friend, the guardsman, in order to make love to a married woman. The trifle is written with much cleverness, but the plot is too involved and the final solution is not satisfactory or reasonable. Neither piece would be likely to succeed in a theatre, unless the representation were exceptionally brilliant, but both supply pleasant entertainment to the reader, and justify the hope that the author may yet produce a play whose dramatic may be equal to its literary excellence.

The Amateur Telescopist's Handbook. By Frank M. Gibson. New York: Longmans.

This work seems to be well adapted to the needs of amateur astronomers who possess only

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very small telescopes. The advice and instruction, and the chapters on the history, principles, care, and testing of the telescope are valuable, since the facts here assembled have heretofore been scattered through different works. The list of 468 celestial objects seems to be a judicious selection, the objects being those which are visible with three inches of aperture at the most, and for this especial purpose they are made the more available since their alignment with the naked-eye stars is given. The criticism which the author evidently expects, and which he has discounted, is that his book will be considered useless by astronomers since it does not lead up to some line of actual research; but criticism of this nature seems captious, for it is not probable that even one in a hundred of those who cultivate "peepshow" astronomy will ever evolve a taste for real investigation. But in the development of any such, no matter how few, the curiosity-seeker renders his service to astronomy, to say nothing of the amusement and instruction which he secures for himself and affords to his friends.

It would seem, however, that criticism should be made on Mr. Gibson's estimate of the value of the small telescope to astronomy. He summarizes the matter in the following words:

"Now, it might as well be stated at once that there is scarcely a possibility in these days that an amateur with a small altazimuth telescope can accomplish any work of scientific value. . . . In earlier days, when astronomical instruments were less perfect, professional astronomers less numerous, and the magnificent observatories of modern times as yet unknown, the amateur with his little telescope might be a distinguished and valued colaborer with the professional with his not very much larger instrument. That day is past; and it is most likely that the small telescope has done all of which it is capable in the way of original scientific work."

A sentiment like this in a book otherwise so commendable is likely to borrow a semblance of authority from the company in which it finds itself, and in the interests of American astronomy it should not be allowed to pass unchallenged. The field of photometry is as wide as it ever was, and there is room here for every amateur who cares to apply himself and to learn the few simple rules which govern such work. The observation of the variable stars is to-day in the hands of the amateur astronomer, and the greater portion of this work is within the scope of the three-inch telescope. The splendid work of Sawyer on the southern stars, published within the year, which is characterized by Hill as the most important contribution to photometry of the decade, required at no time during its execution any greater optical aid than the common field-glass. The recent history of astronomy furnishes numerous instances of similar nature. The reputations of Argelander, Schönfeld, and Schmidt rest to a very large extent upon the work performed by them with the unaided eye or with exceedingly small telescopes, and the field for investigation of just such character is almost as extended as it ever was. The fact admits of no question, that there do exist to-day in astronomy fields, practically unlimited, in which the amateur, with his little telescope, can conduct investigations of the greatest value to science.

The selection of half-a-dozen telescope-makers and sellers, whose goods and whose prices are noted quite in detail, while other equally reliable firms receive only passing mention, seems to savor of discrimination against the latter which is out of place in an educational work like this; and for the same reason the paragraph which speaks of globes and planispheres merits criticism, since it neglects to mention the most recent and the best of the various forms of the latter instrument.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, W. T. Up and Down the Nile. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.25.
Blossom, Henry M., jr. The Documents in Evidence. 4th ed. St. Louis: Buxton & Skinner; New York: Baker & Taylor Co. $1.50.
Conway, W. M. Climbing and Exploration in the Karakoram-Himalayas. Appletons.
Dolbear, Prof. A. E. Matter, Ether, and Motion. Revised ed. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $2.
Forney, M. N. Political Reform by the Representation of Minorities. Matthias N. Forney.
Gould, Dr. George M. An Illustrated Dictionary of Medicine, Biology, and Allied Sciences. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston, Son & Co. $10.
Helm, E. The Joint Standard: Monetary Principles and the Monetary Controversy. Macmillan. $1.10.
Johnson, Gen. B. T. General Washington. [Great Commanders.] Appletons. $1.50.
King, Dr. W. P. Stories of a Country Doctor. Bailey & Fairchild. 50 cents.
Lynch, L. L. Against Odds. Rand, McNally & Co.
Mielziner, Prof. M. Introduction to the Talmud. Cincinnati: Bloch Printing Co. $2.50.
Nicole, J. Le Livre du Préfet. Geneva: Georg & Cie.; New York: Brentanos. $1.80.
Pendleton, Louis. The Wedding Garment: A Tale of the Life to Come. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Quain's Elements of Anatomy. 10th ed. Vol. 3, part 3. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.
Rollins, Clara S. A Burne-Jones Head; and Other Sketches. Lovell, Coryell & Co. $1.
Stockbridge, George H. Balder the Poet, and Other Verses. Putnams. $1.

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